The Outlook

JULY 8, 1911

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A VICTORY FOR THE PEOPLE

The Cunningham claims, which were the immediate cause of the Pinchot-Ballinger controversy, have been disallowed. Commissioner Dennett, of the Land Office, who was a strong supporter of Secretary Ballinger, has now rendered a decision reversing the whole policy and attitude of Secretary Ballinger regarding these claims, and Mr. Fisher, successor to Mr. Ballinger as Secretary of the Interior, has made it clear by a public statement that this decision is final as far as the Department is concerned. This means, not only that the rich coal lands for which these claims were filed are saved from falling into the complete ownership of a syndicate, but also that the great treasure of coal in Alaska may now be used by the Nation as it wills for the benefit of the whole people. The story of these claims is one of the dramatic episodes of American history. Before the American people were fully aware of the great riches they possessed in Alaska men were prospecting in that Territory for coal. They counted on the lavish habits of the Nation with regard to its lands in hoping to get big shares of this treasure for themselves. In 1904 a law was passed which restricted the amount of coal lands any man could secure, and in 1906 President Roosevelt withdrew these Alaska coal lands from entry, for he and his advisers saw that, if the rights of the whole people were to be protected, and at the same time the coal lands developed, there was need of further legislation. Another law in 1908 made some modification in the previous law. In general, however, the purpose of the law was unchanged—to prevent a few capitalists from using a number of men, under the guise of independent claimants, as agents in securing a virtual monopoly in Alaska coal. Among those who had filed claims were some thirty men known as the Cunningham claimants. They used their great influence with Mr. Ballinger, first as Commissioner of the Land Office, then as a private attorney, and finally as Secretary of the Interior, to get these claims approved. Mr. Louis R. Glavis, one of the subordinate officials of the Land Office, found reasons to believe that these claims were illegal, and warned one of his superiors. In spite of that fact, Mr. Ballinger ordered these claims "clear-listed" for patent. Then Mr. Glavis began a struggle to prevent the patenting of these claims. He first secured the suspension of the order for "clear-listing," and he continued, against great odds, until (after Mr. Ballinger, who in the meantime had acted as attorney for these very claimants, became Secretary of the Interior) he decided to appeal to Mr. Ballinger himself. Having failed in that, he took the advice of Mr. Pinchot (then United States Forester) and appealed over the head of his chief to the President. The President held this appeal unsustained, and, for appealing on grounds declared to be insufficient, he summarily dismissed Mr. Glavis as insubordinate. There was one higher tribunal to which Mr. Glavis could go: he appealed to public opinion; and now, after two years of controversy that has wrought havoc with the Administration, Mr. Glavis is officially sustained.

A DEBT OF HONOR

As a reward for his activities on behalf of the public interest against the power of wealthy men and public officials, Mr. Glavis not only suffered the loss of his position in the Federal service, but also,

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because of the humiliation to which he was subjected by the President's rebuke, became the object of sneering comment. So far as his own personal fortunes were concerned, he risked all and lost all. This kind of heroism is not so common that America can afford to cast it aside. We rather expect instances of it at times of great excitement—as in war, for instance; but we seldom encounter it in the course of the routine duties of peace. The Republic should reinstate such a man in the public service. Mr. Glavis, however, was not the only one who was called upon to suffer for urging the interests of the people. Mr. Gifford Pinchot was likewise dismissed, because he valued the truth more than he did his position as Chief Forester. Two of his assistants, Mr. Price and Mr. Shaw, were also discharged. In the course of the investigation Mr. Kerby made a public statement of facts that Secretary Ballinger wished and had been trying to keep secret, and for counting his loyalty to the public superior to his loyalty to any man he was also dismissed. The controversy which started over these coal claims extended to matters affecting other branches of Secretary Ballinger's Department. Mr. Newell, Chief of the Reclamation Service, thus became the object of attack. Fortunately, he has been retained; but he took risks that were as grave as those taken by others, and he deserves to be honored for his fearlessness as a public servant. Mr. Ballinger's predecessor, Mr. James R. Garfield, subjected himself to charges of jealousy by the part that he took. Mr. Brandeis, as Mr. Glavis's attorney, had a great part in disclosing the truth; and "Collier's Weekly" served as a megaphone through which the alarm was shouted. These whom the force of circumstances impelled to become participants in the struggle did not flinch; and they deserve the thanks of the country. If it had not been for their courage, their willingness to take the responsibility of active agitation even when it involved the responsibility for making mistakes, the rich coal lands of Alaska might have gone the way of the rich coal lands of Pennsylvania, and, what is more, a great deal that has been accomplished in securing National control of all National resources might, at this critical juncture, have been irretrievably thrown away.

THE FUTURE OF ALASKA

Now that the most important claims to coal lands in Alaska have been declared illegal, and that a man is in charge of the Department of the Interior whom the people can count on to regard the prosperity of particular concerns as subordinate to the present and future welfare of the people as a whole, what should be done to make Alaska something more than a buried chest of treasure? It is obviously true that coal in the ground will heat no houses, turn no mill-wheels, drive no steamboats or locomotives. It is the business of the Nation, on the one hand, to see that this coal does not fall into the hands of a few rich men or concerns, and, on the other hand, to see that it is not left unused, as it was left by savages, but that it is harnessed for the service of civilization—that it is neither squandered nor neglected. It has sometimes been represented that the people in Alaska are in a rage because the mines are not already opened. We do not believe this; but even if it were so, it would not be conclusive as to what we should do. The riches of Alaska do not belong to the people who are in Alaska; they belong to the American people, and are to be used by them and for them. Congress must take action; but it should act in this matter cautiously, and with great regard for the best interests of the entire people of the United States. It would seem unnecessary to say anything so obvious if it were not for the fact that in much that is said about "developing Alaska" the obvious is ignored. The ownership of the coal lands of Alaska ought to remain in possession of the United States Government in trust for the people. The lands should not be sold, but the right to mine them should be leased, subject to control over labor conditions, price of coal, etc., by the Government. The most just and efficient method of control, in our opinion, would be through an arrangement of a sliding scale of profits. According to this plan, any leasing company would be allowed a percentage of income on its investment in inverse ratio to the rates it charged to

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the consumer of its product. Its operations should be subject to Federal inspection and to the orders of the proper administrative body or official. The settlement of the Cunningham claims opens the way for the proper legislative and administrative treatment of the whole Alaska problem. The Administration should recommend, probably more in detail than it has yet done, and Congress should take, at the earliest practicable moment, the action necessary to conserve and develop these coal-fields for the public benefit.

THE RULE OF REASON

The Supreme Court, after twenty years, has given a definitive interpretation of the Sherman Anti-Trust Law. In the Standard Oil and Tobacco cases the Court has declared that it is the spirit of the law which must rule and not the bare letter. It has laid down the rule that the facts in each particular case must be considered in the light of reason to determine whether they constitute a direct and substantial violation of the purposes of the Anti-Trust Law—namely, the prevention of the evils which flow from the suppression of competition and the establishment of monopoly. This rule of reasonable application is now being used by lower courts in deciding cases under the Anti-Trust Law. The United States Circuit Court in Utah has just handed down a decision in the case brought in 1908 against the Union Pacific Railroad Company. The question before the Court was whether the acquisition by the Union Pacific of a controlling interest in the Southern Pacific constituted a violation of the Sherman Anti-Trust Law. The Court has decided that it does not, for the reason that the Union Pacific, which extended only from Omaha and Kansas City on the east to Ogden, Utah, on the west, was not a substantial competitor for transcontinental business with the Southern Pacific, whose line extended from New York on the east over the sea to New Orleans and thence by rail to San Francisco and Portland on the west. In the opinion of the Court "all the facts in this case, considered in their natural, reasonable, and practical aspect, and given their appropriate relative significance," lead to this conclusion. Mr. Justice Van Devanter of the Supreme Court was a member of the Circuit Court while this case was under consideration, and joins in the majority opinion. In the judgment of The Outlook, the Circuit Court has made a wise application of the Supreme Court's interpretation of the Anti-Trust Law. The decision will probably not please those people who seem constitutionally inclined to the feeling that all corporations are dangerous if not actually wicked, but it will, we believe, commend itself to those who find a more powerful agency for correcting the evils which come from combination and monopoly in reason than in destructive fury.

TWO NEW ANTI-TRUST ACTIONS

It is doubtless also through following this "rule of reason" that the Government has pushed forward its cases against men who are officers of certain subsidiary companies of the United States Steel Corporation or members of certain pooling combinations. The result is that last week indictments were returned by a Federal Grand Jury in New York City against eighty-three men who were connected with thirty-six corporations or pooling combinations related to what is commonly called the Wire Trust. The indictments are against the persons accused individually, and not against the companies. The charge is that in nine separate pooling combinations they unlawfully limited the total output, assigned to each member of the pool its limits as to product, destroyed competition as among themselves, and also prevented possible competition from outside. All such acts, it is charged, are criminal under the provisions of the Sherman Anti-Trust Law, which forbid combination and conspiracy in restraint of trade. Evidently the Federal authorities do not think that the kind of combination described in the indictments is such that the officers of corporations might honestly be in doubt as to whether or not they were violating the law. Until the recent decisions such doubt might fairly be entertained as to certain points, and in those cases criminal prosecution of individuals would not be fair or desirable. What the Government has now undertaken to do is to show that

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the Wire Trust officers were deliberately disobeying what they fully understood to be the injunctions of the law. This is, of course, a matter of evidence, and until the cases are tried in court the public will properly reserve its judgment. Still another suit was brought last week under the Anti-Trust Law. It is a suit in equity, and is directed against the Periodical Clearing-House, an organization of a dozen magazines (not, by the way, including The Outlook) which have joined together for the purpose of regulating and making uniform the prices at which the various magazines are sold by subscription agencies and newsdealers. The President of the Clearing-House, in a statement for the press, has declared that, if the Clearing-House is an unlawful organization, every member of it will wish to have it dissolved at once. The policy of the organization, as described by its President, has been to withhold neither from the Government nor from the public any fact about its operation. The members of the Clearing-House took elaborate means to find out whether there was anything in the nature of their organization which was in violation of the law, and had no reason to suppose that they were transgressing.

DUE PROCESS OF LAW

Few clauses in the Constitution have been appealed to more often than that which guarantees the citizen from being deprived of his property without due process of law. An extreme attempt to avoid compliance with proper regulation under the police powers of the State was promptly and decisively negatived in a decision recently handed down by the United States Supreme Court. Under a New York City ordinance a company running motor stages for passengers on Fifth Avenue was forbidden to carry advertisements on its vehicles. The New York Court of Appeals held that the ordinance was a proper one, and that the company had no incidental right under its charter to carry on an advertising business in connection with its passenger trade—in short, that its rights as to displaying advertising matter were no greater than those of any other people who use the street. Thereupon the company took its case to the United States courts, on the ground that it had been wrongfully restricted in the use of its own property. In the opinion rendered by the Supreme Court the right of the State to restrict the uses of the property rights granted by its charters is affirmed as a matter of justice, as was declared in a case in Massachusetts where an ordinance was called in question which forbade the carrying of "sandwich" signs in crowded thoroughfares. In all such cases it is not enough to show that the persons restricted suffered money loss; it must appear that the State or city has acted beyond its broad powers to decide for itself what constitutes a nuisance or obstruction or detriment. Thus it appears that the Constitution is not to be a refuge from proper local supervision. In this particular case it is interesting to note that the New York Court of Appeals took into account the artistic and æsthetic view of the matter; and the Supreme Court appears to approve that attitude, for Justice McKenna's opinion declares that if all owners of vehicles were to do as they chose in the matter of displaying advertising there might result "such a fantastic panorama on the streets of New York that objection to it could not be said to have prompting only in an exaggerated æsthetic sense."

A FINE BILL TO VETO

A new and vicious assault has been made upon the integrity of City Hall Park in New York City. The Legislature, by a parliamentary trick in the Assembly, has passed the Stillwell Bill, which, if it becomes law, will vastly increase the danger that the new Court-House may be placed in City Hall Park. The bill provides that if the Court-House Board and the Board of Estimate and Apportionment do not agree within four months on a site for the Court-House, the building shall be placed in the park. The bill is an outrageous violation of the principle of home rule, for if there is any one thing that a city should be permitted to determine for itself, it is the location of its public buildings. But, more than that, the passage of the bill is an attempt to bring about a condition which would be thoroughly bad. New York has all too little open space in the form of parks in its congested

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sections. Not a foot of park space now existing should be given up for sites for public buildings. Instead of permitting further encroachments upon the narrow limits of City Hall Park, it should be the effort of the community to remove certain encumbrances already there. The Federal Post-Office and Court-House building occupies land once a part of the park and essential to its integrity and effectiveness. The present Court-House building is another blot upon the park. The park should be preserved and restored to its original dimensions, not only for the sake of the breathing-space which it affords in a region of tremendous congestion, but in order to make an adequate setting for the City Hall, one of the finest examples of early American architecture in the country. The people of New York City, we are convinced, do not want their City Hall Park invaded by a building, dozens of appropriate sites for which can be easily found. We trust that Mayor Gaynor will uphold the principle of home rule and protect the integrity of City Hall Park by vetoing the Stillwell Bill.

AT LAST! New York City is really to have more subways. Half, at least, of the comprehensive system which has been laid out to afford additional transit facilities for Manhattan, the Bronx, Brooklyn, and Queens is to be built (in financial co-operation with the city) and operated by the Brooklyn Rapid Transit—and perhaps all of it. The Outlook reported two weeks ago the plan which had finally crystallized out of chaos through the indefatigable labors of the committee of the Board of Estimate headed by Borough President McAneny and of the Public Service Commission. Under this plan the city offered to each of the two rivals for subway leases, the Interborough and the Brooklyn Rapid Transit, new routes which, with its present lines, would form for each a comprehensive system serving the several boroughs. When the week which was given the companies for reply had passed, the Brooklyn company accepted the offer, with a few unimportant modifications. The Interborough, on the other hand, rejected the offer out of hand, asserting that certain conditions made by the city were so onerous as to be impossible of acceptance. The Board of Estimate and Apportionment and the Public Service Commission have accepted the modifications proposed by the Brooklyn Rapid Transit and have come to an agreement with that company for the building of the lines offered to it, with a further agreement that if the Interborough persists in its refusal of the city's offer the Brooklyn company will build all the subways planned. The Interborough has been given a last chance to extend its lines, the city offering some substantial modifications in an attempt to meet the company's objections. It is much to be hoped that the Interborough will now make an end of its recalcitrancy. But whether it does or not, the people of New York will be very little the loser. The new subways are to be built, thanks to the enlightened policy of the Brooklyn Rapid Transit, but thanks still more to the determined stand made several months ago by Comptroller Prendergast and President Mitchell and the devoted and unremitting labors of Borough President McAneny and the members of the Public Service Commission.

DAKOTA'S JUBILEE In the week of June 11–16 there was celebrated at Yankton, South Dakota, the Jubilee Anniversary of Dakota Territory. Fifty years ago, on March 2, 1861, James Buchanan signed the Act of Congress organizing the original Territory of Dakota, which embraced the present States of North and South Dakota, Montana, Wyoming, and eastern Idaho. Yankton has been called "the Mother City of the Dakotas." Long before white settlement the place was the seat of the chief village of the Indian tribe from which it took its name; it was the Territorial capital from the beginning; it was the headquarters of the up-river military operations against the Sioux, and of the great movement into the gold-fields of the Black Hills during the '70s; it is the seat of Yankton College, the oldest institution of higher learning in the original Territory, and it was the home of the great patriotic Statehood movement of '85–'89, resulting in the division of the Territory as it existed at that time into North and South

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Dakota and their admission as two States into the Union. President Taft, in his courteous reply to Yankton's invitation to attend the celebration, said: "The occasion marks a most important event in the history and progress of the Northwest, and well deserves recognition by a celebration such as is proposed. The development of the Territory has been a factor, not only of great moment to the people and region immediately affected, but of the highest consequence to the Nation at large. When organized, the Territory embraced one-tenth of the area of the Republic. Within practically its original limits five great States have been founded and admitted into the Federal Union. The progress in material, social, and commercial development of the commonwealths in question has been marvelous." High honor was paid to the Dakota pioneers still living, those of the city and neighboring counties and those who came from distant parts of the country to attend the jubilee. The chief guest of honor was the venerable Dr. William Jayne, of Springfield, Illinois, now in his eighty-sixth year, who was appointed in 1861 first Governor of the newly created Territory by his friend and townsman President Lincoln. The exercises of the anniversary were fittingly held in conjunction with the twenty-ninth annual commencement of the pioneer college, and were of a high order of entertainment and inspiration, including educational, historic, and patriotic addresses; an old settlers' reunion and camp-fire; street parades with historic floats picturing typical pioneering scenes and customs; together with Indian shows and dances in gorgeous native costume by a large delegation of Yankton Sioux from the reservation up-river, who justly regarded themselves as an important factor in this historic celebration.

A HISTORIC PAGEANT

The significant conclusion of the week's programme was the enactment of the Dakota Historical Pageant at the college athletic park on the afternoon of June 16 before an audience of several thousand spectators. This pageant, as arranged by Mr. Joseph Mills Hanson, the poet and romancer of Dakota's heroic days, represented a number of famous scenes in Dakota history. First came Sieur de la Verendrye, who took possession of the region in the name of France in 1738, meeting a friendly band of Mandan Indians, burying in the new soil with appropriate ceremony the leaden plate bearing the arms of France, and unfurling above it the flag of his country in token of conquest. Then came Lewis and Clark, exploring the winding course of the Missouri, camping on the south bank of the river opposite Yankton, where was held a friendly meeting with the Yankton Indians. Here the infant Strike-the-Ree, afterward chief of the Yanktons and protector of the river settlements during the Indian uprising of 1862, was received in camp and wrapped in the folds of the American flag in token of his adoption as a true American—which indeed he proved to be. After that came the settlers of the early '60s with prairie schooners and ox teams, encountering hostile Indians and the hardships of frontier life. These and other picturesque episodes were enacted on a large scale in the open air, the parts being taken by scores of real Indians, together with the figures of soldiers, frontiersmen, and historical characters. It was a great picture-lesson in Dakota history, enacted on historic soil, and a memorable closing of a significant historical anniversary.

THE AMHERST IDEA

Last February The Outlook reported the address of the class of 1885 to the Trustees of Amherst College. In that address, it will be remembered, was presented an ideal of the distinctive field which Amherst might and ought to occupy instead of trying to compete with institutions in which vocational, technical, and professional training and specialization are the rule. The policy of the College should be, in the judgment of the authors of the address, to give "a training which should be undergone for the sake of learning and for the benefit of the State," "a training for public leadership, not a personal equipment for a trade." To this end the class proposed that in future (1) the instruction given at Amherst College be a modified classical course; (2) the degree of Bachelor of Science be abolished; (3) the College

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adopt the deliberate policy of devoting all its means to the indefinite increase of teachers' salaries; (4) the number of students attending the College be limited; (5) entrance to College be permitted only by competitive examination. At the Commencement last week the President and Board of Trustees made an answer to the address of the class of 1885. They welcomed "the frank, loyal, and helpful" criticism of the address, and approved the spirit and intent with which it was made. They declared that the College administration was already putting into operation the policy which the class proposed. To this end it has been determined that at the end of three years the degree of Bachelor of Science shall be abolished and that thereafter only the degree of Bachelor of Arts shall be given. The requirements for admission and for graduation on the side of what are commonly known as the humanities have been strengthened; and at the same time the importance of science as an element in culture has been recognized by requiring two years of scientific study instead of one in preparation for the degree of Bachelor of Arts. The result of the policy which the administration is now pursuing is summed up by the Trustees as follows: "The Amherst graduate, with these plans and policies in full force, will have offered four years of Latin or Greek, or both, at entrance; he will have had in college two years of an ancient language and two years at least of science; he will have a reading knowledge of German and Romance languages; he will have pursued three subjects for three years and one subject for two years; he will have had the choice, besides the requirements of classics, sciences, mathematics, and modern languages, of philosophy, including metaphysics and psychology, history, economics, political science, and literature; he will have had abundant opportunity to interest himself in college activities and athletics, and he will not have been permitted to overdo it, either. Best of all, this will have been done in an institution whose president, trustees, faculty, alumni, and undergraduates believe that the first office and duty of its training is to stimulate spiritual responsibility for the service of humanity." The Trustees declare themselves in agreement with the policy of the limitation of the number of students, and the policy of increasing the salaries of teachers "until they are at a reasonable level." The last suggestion of the address, admission by competitive examination, is the only one with which the Trustees do not find themselves in accord. Gifts to the amount of four hundred thousand dollars were announced, which, added to a fund of equal size collected during the last ten years, are to be used exclusively for the increase of the salaries of professors. This policy of the administration of Amherst College, encouraged and stimulated by the notable address of the class of 1885, of making the College an institution for liberal culture and broad preparation for life rather than for a narrow preparation for the quest of a livelihood, is, we believe, an eminently wise one. That type of technical and specialized education, the test of whose success is a commercial one, may be the most popular type in this country, but there is a no less distinct, if a somewhat smaller, place for the type of education in which Amherst and its neighbor, Williams, are leaders.

THE FRENCH CABINET CRISIS

Last week, in France, the Monis Cabinet resigned and the Caillaux Cabinet took its place. The defeat of the Ministry was upon an insignificant point, but the real cause lay in the issue of proportional representation. For a long time the Radical and Socialist Deputies have held the electoral machinery of the country in their hands. Like other political bodies which enjoy administrative power, so the French Radicals and Socialists have no notion of "letting go." Their opponents, the Liberals and Conservatives, see a way for their own return to power by introducing the Swiss system of proportional representation—that is to say, by providing by law for adequate minority representation. The question then arises: How much nearer proportional representation is France under the Radical, Joseph Caillaux, than it was before? Cynics will say, not at all. But not all Frenchmen are cynics. Certain enthusiasts believe that France is really about to take a step towards a better electoral system. The

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new Premier is well known as an ambitious man. He has made a clever Minister of Finance, and, now that he has realized his ambition to become Premier, he cannot fail to see the opportunity to make an enduring name for himself and a mark in French political history. It is expected that he will do this by taking advantage of the feeling now aroused throughout France among the people as opposed to the politicians against the present ballot system. France votes by the *scrutin d'arrondissement;* that is to say, one name only appears on the ticket for each party for each of the 362 legislative *arrondissements*, or districts, into which France is divided. Each *arrondissement* elects one Deputy to Parliament, but if its population exceeds a hundred thousand it is divided into two or more constituencies. The result of this system has been to make of France in general a nation of petty parochial politicians, with only a few statesmen of broad grasp rising above the general mass. It is now proposed to employ instead the *scrutin de liste* and proportional representation; that is to say, a ticket on which several names appear for each one of the eighty-six departments into which France is divided. Thus there would be secured, first, a broader basis of representation, and, second, a practical measure of minority or proportional representation, in order to guard against a too rigid and too sweeping control by a bare majority. If the new Prime Minister can swing his Radical colleagues in the direction of these reforms, he will have made a distinct political success.

THE CORONATION AFTERMATH

The impressive ceremonies attending the coronation of King George and Queen Mary have been followed by other events in the celebration equally successful from a popular point of view. Chief among them was the journey of the sovereigns to Portsmouth, where they reviewed an unparalleled array of battle-ships. Next perhaps in interest was the royal visit to the "City," where the sovereigns and their children were acclaimed with great enthusiasm. Their progress was made the more picturesque by the fact that Canadian escorts and Indian orderlies rode beside the royal landau. Immediately behind rode Field Marshal Lord Kitchener, accompanied by a brilliant group of officials. A thanksgiving service was held at St. Paul's Cathedral, at which a choir of four hundred furnished the music. The great building was crowded with a notable audience, including all the Ambassadors, Colonial Premiers, and other distinguished visitors remaining in London. The Guildhall lunch was attended by no less than seven hundred guests, including all the members of the British royal family. But the most significant event to Americans was the exhibition of British friendliness towards this country as shown at a dinner given by the Pilgrim Society in honor of Mr. John Hays Hammond, our Special Ambassador at the coronation. The principal speech on the occasion was made by ex-Premier Balfour. He observed that Americans had their problems of empire just as Great Britain had, but that, whatever contemporary quarrels had from time to time appeared between England and the United States, the realities of history were too strong for them. The two countries could not help being in sympathy with each other, for both were enamored with liberty and both had the same ideals. The result is that the two great existing democracies of the world are the United States and Great Britain. But if both nations were democracies, it must be remembered that democracy is not a machine to run by itself; it is one of the most difficult forms of government, requiring ardent, self-sacrificing patriotism on the part of the best men of the community to insure that the will of the people move along the lines of true progress. Surely, concluded Mr. Balfour, it is predestined that in the world history of the future these countries shall work together, not by formal alliance, but by deep sympathy, aims and ideals for the cause of civilization. In reply, Mr. Hammond called attention to the fact that King George's coronation had happily occurred at an exceptionally auspicious moment for Anglo-American relations, by reason of the Arbitration Treaty now being negotiated by the British and American Governments. On

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that very day it was announced that the Treaty's text was practically complete.

CARLYLE'S BIRTHPLACE

There are few places in London more interesting to the lover of English literature of the last half of the nineteenth century than the Carlyle House in Cheyne Row, which for a number of years has been the property of a Memorial Trust, and open to visitors. This Memorial Trust has very fortunately secured also the birthplace of Carlyle—what is called the Arched House in Ecclefechan. This little Scotch village lies between Carlisle and Glasgow, and is described in Chambers's Gazetteer, published about 1832, as "a thriving manufacturing village near the foot of Annandale, Dumfriesshire, in the parish of Hoddam. It possesses a distillery, has a dissenting meeting-house, and is celebrated for monthly cattle-markets." This is not an especially inviting list of attractions; but Carlyle has commemorated the old meeting-house, which long ago disappeared, and has described vividly and with great affection the environment of his childhood. The little town has changed much since the gazetteer published the description. The distillery burned down many years ago, the manufacturing has gone, and the population has dwindled; but the Arched House (so called from the arched opening through the center of it, with doors on either side), which was built near the end of the eighteenth century, by the uncle and father of Thomas Carlyle, in the solid, old-fashioned Scotch way, is likely to endure for generations. The joint ownership of the property involved various legal complications, but the property had remained in the possession of the Carlyle family until its purchase last December by the Carlyle House Memorial Trust, which assumed its management on the first of January for the purpose of preserving the birthplace of the great Scotchman in its present condition, and making it a museum of relics and memorials of every kind of Thomas Carlyle and of Jane Welsh Carlyle, his wife. Practically no changes have been made in the room in which Carlyle was born since the house was built. But the author of "Sartor Resartus" died in the house in Cheyne Row early in February, 1881, and was buried in the Ecclefechan churchyard five days later. This churchyard is only three minutes' walk from the Arched House. At a time when the encroachments of business and of great populations are obliterating so many memorials of the past, the rescue of a house associated with a great writer or artist is a contribution to what may be called visible history, and a new breakwater against the tide of change. The opening of the house in Cheyne Row has brought an army of pilgrims to Chelsea, and there is no doubt that the opening of the Arched House in Ecclefechan will greatly increase the number of visitors to that lonely but very interesting little Scotch village.

A SEASIDE PARK FOR THE PEOPLE

The proposition that New York City shall acquire a Seaside Park as a measure of relief for its congested crowds has been brought forward again by the recent fire on Coney Island that destroyed the Dreamland property there and left the land vacant and for the most part untenanted. Beyond the burned area the city already owns some acres of shore front and has been building a great modern bath-house. It is now proposed that it shall acquire the land which the fire cleared, with some intervening lots, and add it to its present holdings. The taking of Dreamland, with necessary abutting lands, is said to mean an expenditure of three million dollars, if not more. On the other hand, a much larger site has been offered on Rockaway Beach for less than half this amount. It embraces two hundred and fifty acres of shore and sand dunes as against the twenty-five acres of Dreamland, with an incomparable beach to which the ocean is constantly adding, instead of cutting away as on Coney Island. It is not at present as easy of access as the latter resort, but probably the matter of transportation may be depended upon to settle itself, once the park is a fact. It is no small argument in favor of Rockaway for those who are contending for this site that a park there would not be set in the midst of a lot of garish shows, as it would be on Coney Island, but out in the great solitude by the sea. This all the more since it is part of the purpose to put two great hospitals in the

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park. One is to be the Convalescent Hospital for which the city has suffered so long. Thousands of patients who have only half recovered are sent away from the city's hospitals every year because of the other thousands who are always waiting to take their places. A place of rest where they can pick up strength for two or three weeks would mean to them what nothing within their reach now can give—often enough life itself. The other is to be the hospital for the little crippled sufferers from bone tuberculosis, to whom the seashore holds out the only promise of relief and cure. It will be remembered that some years ago private charity raised a sum of over a quarter of a million dollars to build this hospital. The city was to furnish the site. It has never done so. The money is in the bank yet, while the five thousand little cripples in our tenements suffer without hope. The Parks and Playgrounds Association has seized upon the present opportunity to take a vigorous stand for the acquisition of a park now, before the closing of the corporate stock budget puts it off for another year. A Seaside Park Committee of influential citizens has been appointed and is conducting an active campaign. While its members favor the Rockaway Beach site, as for many reasons the logical one, the demand of the Committee is for *a park now*, while the city has what may be its last chance to acquire one. In that there is much reason. Practically all the seaside property within reach is now in private hands, mostly unwilling to part with it. Values are advancing rapidly. Three years ago New York could have bought for a million dollars seashore lands for which now three times as much money is asked. The very Rockaway site is a part of this land. As to the need of a people's seashore park there is no question. It is great now, and it will be greater as the city grows. Alone among all the world's great seaboard cities, New York has neglected this opportunity, as it has let so many others pass in days gone by. It planned so badly (or rather it did not plan at all) that when the great crowding came in Manhattan and room had to be made, it was compelled to buy parks and playgrounds at the rate of a million dollars a block. The Mulberry Bend of a scant three acres cost the city a million and a half. Shall we repeat these costly errors? is the question put by the advocates of the seaside park; or shall we learn from them? The answer will mean much to the metropolis, much now and more hereafter. The Committee, of which Jacob A. Riis is chairman, announces that it is in the fight to a finish—that is, till the seaside park has become a fact.

THE STAVRIOTÆ

The twentieth century is bringing greater privileges as regards freedom of religious worship. A striking proof of this is seen in Asia Minor. That land has been the scene of many martyrdoms and massacres, often of special vindictiveness because of the suspicion that some of the Mohammedans secretly favored Christianity. The suspicion was justified. Two and a half centuries ago the Greek inhabitants of a number of villages not far from Trebizond, notably the village of Stavri, were forcibly "converted" to Mohammedanism. They were compelled to adopt Mohammedan names, to worship in mosques, and to serve as soldiers at a time when only Mohammedans served in the army. Yet these people also worshiped in underground chapels; they kept the Christian sacraments in secret; they had their Christian names, which they secretly used. A generation ago the Stavriotæ—the inhabitants of Stavri—attempted to throw off their guise of Mohammedanism, but the attempt was checked. Five years ago the attempt was renewed, but in vain. With the establishment of the Young Turk régime and the proclamation of greater religious liberty, the Stavriotæ saw their chance to be recognized as Christians, and a year ago last winter actually prevailed upon the Governor of Trebizond to send an official request to that effect to the Central Government at Constantinople. The following spring the Government granted the request. But the Governor of Trebizond waited *nine months* before communicating it to the Stavriotæ! However, all's well that ends well. The Stavriotæ may hereafter live openly as Christians, and a constitutional régime ends an injustice and tyranny that under a dictatorship had lasted two hundred and fifty years.

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THE ADMINISTRATION OF THE CANAL

Not only Congress but the American people should at once be awakened to the vital necessity involved in the problem of the management of the Panama Canal after it is built, and for this reason I wish that the article on another page by Mr. Talbot, setting forth the views of Colonel Goethals, could be distributed as a tract everywhere. The building of the Panama Canal is one of the really great feats (not too numerous) with which mankind can be credited during its history, and second only in importance to its construction will come the question of its proper management. Hitherto everything done in connection with the Canal has reflected the very highest credit upon the people of the United States. The whole history of the undertaking, from the acquisition of the Panama strip to the extraordinarily successful initial and preliminary feat of Colonel Gorgas in perfecting sanitary conditions—a feat without which no further work on the Isthmus could have been attempted—and then to the extraordinarily successful management of Colonel Goethals, has been the history of a monumental achievement in which the highest efficiency has been combined with the highest and most sensitive integrity and disinterestedness. Not one touch of scandal has been connected with the work at any stage, and the only people who have ever been discredited in connection with it are the very few who have attempted to start slanderous stories about some feature of it. The Bishop of British Honduras, Bishop Bury, in an English magazine, the "Treasury," for January last, gave a very interesting account, not only of the titanic work of building the Panama Canal itself, but of the extraordinary success of the Government in caring for the moral and physical welfare of the army of employees who are doing the work. Bishop Bury has had large experience with what has been done by civilized nations in tropical countries. His concluding paragraphs are as follows:

> There can be few places where more is done for those engaged in a great undertaking than on the Canal Zone, and I have never yet seen a work where, as far as one can judge, it has been more the wish and intention of those responsible to "do the thing thoroughly."
>
> The utmost care is taken to keep the place morally wholesome and clean, and, as the Governor appears to be clothed with really absolute and despotic authority, he takes care to keep all the "undesirables" at a distance. This, of course, is not easy, but I am assured that there are a number of officials always on the lookout, and that bad characters, as soon as known, are at once "fired"—a very expressive term for being effectually got rid of and sent off.
>
> It was a great pleasure to me to meet Colonel Gorgas, the medical member of the Canal Commission, under whose superintendence the work of "cleaning up" has been so effectually done, and yellow fever completely banished, and malarial fever brought down to a very low margin, compared with other days.
>
> Colon and Panama have both been rejuvenated, from a sanitary point of view, and altogether I can imagine Panama becoming just the place for a rest cure, and taking its place as one of the health resorts of the world.
>
> This enterprise—and I know of no other of anything like the same magnitude of which it can be said—has aimed from the first at promoting (1) the efficiency of those engaged in it, (2) their physical well-being, and (3) their moral and spiritual good. No one ought to deteriorate there! On the contrary, I can imagine a young man going there, and perhaps being a little bit "slack" in character, but returning to the United States, when his work is done, more efficient, better in health, and braced up in his moral tone; and this, I know I am right in saying, was President Roosevelt's aim when he determined that the Canal should be acquired.
>
> It is most interesting to go and see how, as it has been said, the Americans are "making the dirt fly" at Panama, but to me it has been of the very greatest interest to see how that is being done, and done very thoroughly and encouragingly in a sense of which the inventor of that phrase probably never dreamed.

Mr. Talbot's article incidentally furnishes a fresh illustration of what was really done by myself as President on the occasions when I was denounced as acting "unconstitutionally." After Mr. Stevens's resignation (as to the details of which, by the way, Mr. Talbot is in error), I became convinced that it was imperative that there should be a single head on the Isthmus. Congress clung to the plan of a seven-headed commission. But the President had very great power, implied in the mere fact of being President, which he could use with the utmost advantage if he were willing to take the responsibility and to

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look at the matter in the proper way. For two years Congress actually failed to make any provision for running the Panama strip at all, and if the then President had at that time acted in accordance with the views of his critics, the whole work would have stopped—just exactly as it would never have been begun if at that time he had acted in accordance with the views of those same critics. So, when Congress adhered to its seven-headed commission, I solved the difficulty by simply announcing that every recommendation made by Colonel Goethals would be acted upon exactly as if he were the single Commissioner; that he was to be given the entire responsibility and therefore the entire power—and any other Commissioner who did not accept this view or act upon it would have been promptly replaced. Mr. Talbot does not state the case quite accurately when he says that "a continuation of a seven-headed commission can be had only at great cost," but also that "a one-man control is in spite of law." This implies that what has been done was contrary to the law, which is not the fact. All that I did was to do what was absolutely necessary so long as the law did not forbid it, instead of leaving undone what was absolutely necessary because the law did not explicitly provide for it—this instance affording a true explanation of many other acts which were denounced as unconstitutional during my administration of the Presidency.

The views of Colonel Goethals as set forth by Mr. Talbot are not merely unquestionably sound, but must be translated into action by Congress under penalty of seeing trouble and even disaster when the attempt to operate the Canal has begun. Half of the present force of employees will be needed for the successful operation of the Canal. The whole work should be put under one man, and, in my judgment, that one man should unquestionably be Colonel Goethals, who knows all the conditions and is infinitely better fit than any one else to make, with least dislocation and most success, the change from the construction of the Canal to its administration. Within a year the work of providing and training the future operative force should be begun. Tolls should be charged exactly as Colonel Goethals proposes, and without any reference to the protests of the transcontinental railways. The question in connection with our coast trade it is not necessary at the moment to discuss. The policy of the Government in administering the Canal should be announced at once, so that the other great commercial nations of the world may know what they can expect, and shape their policy accordingly. I entirely agree that the United States Government should itself equip and run the plants for fuel, food, laundrying on a gigantic scale, and the like, as advocated by Colonel Goethals. The three hundred and seventy-five million dollars put into the "ditch" will thereby come back to the American people, and the work will be done to far greater public advantage than it could be done by any private firm. It is true also that the Panama Railroad should be run by the same man who runs the Panama Canal, and he should also dominate every other form of activity within the limits of the Canal Zone.

THEODORE ROOSEVELT.

REVOLUTION BUT NOT REFORM

The revolutionary legislation pending in Albany concerning the educational system of the city of New York, incorporated in what is popularly known as the Mayor's Charter, is of interest to the Nation. For New York is a city set on a hill, and whatever it does is either an inspiring model or a woeful example. This proposed revolution is a woeful example.

It violates three fundamental principles which generally are, and always ought to be, recognized in our American educational system.

New York City is divided into forty-six school districts, each district with its local school board. Each school board has one representative in the city Board of Education, which therefore comprises forty-six members. These forty-six members render their service without pay, as do the members of the local school boards. The whole system is a part of the educational system of the State, not subject to municipal control, though the members of the Board are appointed by the Mayor.

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The proposed revolution would make this educational system a department of the city, would make the Board of Education paid officials of the city, and would reduce the Board from forty-six members to seven. Each of these changes would be a change for the worse.

I. The education of the children of the State is the function of the State. This principle is not only recognized by the general practice in America and in other democratic countries, but also by the decisions of the courts. The children are wards, not of the village or of the municipality, but of the State. On their education depends the welfare, not merely of the village or of the municipality, but of the State. The responsibility for their education, therefore, rests upon the State, should be carried on under the State, should be subject to the control of the State. Whatever village boards of education or municipal boards of education do is done by them as departments of the State, acting for the State. Mayor Gaynor himself, when judge upon the bench, recognized this principle. In the case of Ridenour vs. Board of Education he said: 'It is a State and not a city agency, doing State and not city work and functions. Education is not city, village, county, or town business. It is a matter belonging to the State government." The same principle has been affirmed by the Court of Appeals of New York State. The Board of Education was sued for wages by a teacher in New York City. The Board contended that the suit should have been brought against the city. The Court held to the contrary, saying: "If the Board cannot be sued for teachers' wages and the teacher must resort to a suit against the city, then surely the Board must have sunk into a mere city agency and it no longer has any use for independent corporate powers. Public education then becomes a city function, exposed to the taint of current municipal politics and any and every general mismanagement that may prevail in city departments."

Mayor Gaynor complains that critics of the proposed legislation have asserted its object to be to bring the schools under political control. We think that he has small ground for his complaint. It is a well-settled principle of law that the motive of an act is to be determined by the necessary effect of the act; and it is not merely the critics of this proposed legislation, it is the Court of Appeals, who state that to make public education a city function is to expose it to the taint of current municipal politics. This may not be the motive of Mayor Gaynor. It might not be the effect under Mayor Gaynor's administration. But it would be the inevitable result in the final outcome.

II. Making the Board of Education a paid Board is equally inconsistent with the almost universal practice of American communities and with the best interests of the city.

All great educational institutions need for their proper administration two sets of experts: a body of educational experts, to whom shall be intrusted the teaching function, and a body of business experts, to whom shall be intrusted the business administration of the property. The best educational experts can be procured only by paying them a salary; and the teaching force is therefore always a paid force. The best business experts can be obtained only by not paying them a salary; and therefore, almost without exception, the business experts (that is, the board of trustees of a college or the board of education of a public school) are unpaid. The reason why the best business experts cannot be obtained by paying them a salary is that no educational institution could stand the financial strain involved in giving to the expert business man the income which he could make by conducting a private business. If, therefore, expert business men are to be hired, the institution must be satisfied with men of moderate business ability. This simple principle has led all colleges, and practically all boards of education, to employ unpaid men in the business administration.

To this universal policy of an unpaid Board Mayor Gaynor makes two objections: that it is not possible to secure men of the highest type without salary, nor men who will give all their time to the work of the Board. The answer to the second objection is that universal experience shows it not to be necessary to secure all the time of the members of the Board for the business administration of the schools. The answer to the first objection

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is that the schools have found no difficulty in getting without pay men of the highest type—such men as E. Ellery Anderson, Henry W. Taft, Jacob W. Mack, John G. Agar, and many others who have rendered free service in past years. No cause makes so strong an appeal to the best men in the community as the cause of the children. The history of the past demonstrates without question that the Mayor can have, if he wishes it, the very best business service in the city put at the disposal of the children in its municipal and local boards of education. If the best men have not always been found in the boards of education, it has been because they have not been sought, not because they have refused to serve.

If the Board of Education is paid, the city will be unexpectedly fortunate if the salary does not attract to the Board some men who are not altogether desirable—men who are failures in other walks of life, or men who hope to use the Board as a stepping-stone to better position in political life.

There are two other advantages in an unpaid over a paid educational board. A paid board will not develop, it will probably weaken, the public interest in the schools and the sense of public responsibility for the schools. All educational and charitable work done by the city or the State is better done for commingling volunteer workers with official workers. Such a commingling adds an element of spontaneity and humanity too often lacking in officialdom. The schools of New York under a voluntary Board make provision for the education of the deaf and dumb, the blind, the crippled, the anæmic and tuberculous children of the city. It is permitted to doubt whether this provision would have been made so promptly and efficiently under a paid Board. While thus a paid Board would feel less the force of public sentiment in the people, and would tend to take responsibility and interest from the people, it would also be apt to assume responsibilities for which it is not fitted, to meddle with educational aspects of the school concerning which it has no expert knowledge, and so interfere with the best work of the teaching force. In both these respects The Outlook agrees absolutely with the letter of the Hon. Seth Low which we publish on another page.

III. If the present Board of Education of the city of New York is larger than it needs to be (and we think probably this is the case), a Board of Education of seven would certainly be too small. The Board in any community should be large enough to represent all classes. In New York City it should be large enough to represent every borough, but not necessarily every school district; large enough also to represent Protestants, Roman Catholics, and Jews, employers and employed, women and men. A Board of seven would not be adequate for this purpose. On the other hand, it is desirable that the central Board of Education should be of such size that every member should feel a personal responsibility, and that the best men in the city should not be deterred from serving on it by the conviction that, owing to its size, they could render no efficient service.

The three principles which we have here laid down, and which the proposed legislation at Albany violates, we believe to be of universal application, as appropriate for the rural districts as for the great cities, for Alaska or Porto Rico as for New York. They are:

Education is the function of the State, not of the local community.

The teaching force should be paid. The board of business administration should be unpaid.

The board should be large enough to represent the various elements interested in the school, but no larger than is necessary for that purpose.

We wish that we could believe that the educational provisions of the new New York Charter have been drawn solely for the purpose of affording the children of New York a better education; that the experience of the past and the fundamental principles of public school education recognized in all other American communities, and hitherto recognized in the metropolis, are set aside in order more successfully to train up the children to be worthy American citizens. But it is difficult to reconcile this opinion with the provisions of the Charter. If the citizens of New York desire to preserve a non-

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partisan, intellectually efficient, and broadly human school system for this city, it is high time that they called a meeting and gave to their desires a voice strong enough and clear enough to reach the Governor and the legislators at Albany.

THE COMING ISSUES

We reported last week the action of the Insurgent Republicans in the Senate in uniting with the Democrats to compel the Finance Committee to report the bill for the revision of the wool schedule. It was partly "playing politics;" but it indicates a confusion of party issues, and it may possibly forecast a disruption of parties and a new alignment. It might even indicate, possibly, a tendency to depart from the Anglo-Saxon habit (two political parties divided by a clean-cut issue) toward the French habit (a variety of parties, each with its special platform, forming, breaking up, and reforming coalitions with kaleidoscopic variety and great irregularity). We do not think it indicates such a change, because, amid all the confused tangle of public debate between Democrats and Republicans, Regulars and Insurgents, two issues begin to stand out with some degree of clearness; and on these issues the people will demand an opportunity to vote. If on these issues neither party is explicit in its declarations, the people will discern the tendency in each and will decide between those tendencies. These issues are:

Should we endeavor to break up the great industrial combinations and restore free competition? Or should we endeavor to bring the great combinations under close and careful Government supervision and regulation?

Should we abandon the protective principle and frame our tariff for the simple purpose of raising revenue for the Government in ways that will produce the necessary revenue with the greatest equality of burden upon the people? Or should we adjust the tariff for the purpose of protecting and promoting the industrial interests of the Nation?

These issues are more important than any temporary phases which they may present, such as lowering the wool schedule or modifying the Anti-Trust Law. We are in favor of lowering the wool schedule; we are in favor of modifying or supplementing, if not supplanting, the Anti-Trust Law. But we are in favor of doing both things, not as isolated bits of an essentially fragmentary legislation, but as parts of a National policy which we here attempt to define, in so doing also defining our convictions concerning them.

I. To break up industrial organization and return to free competition is impossible. This is an era of organization—religious, political, commercial. Congress cannot successfully defy the spirit of the age. To break up organization and return to competition is undesirable. The movement toward organization is a movement toward better human conditions and improved human character. Its disadvantages are incidental; its advantages are essential. The advantages can be retained and the disadvantages remedied. What the country needs is not disorganization of industry, but the democratization of industry. One step, and an important one, in that direction is Government supervision and regulation of industrial organizations.

II. The second issue is not so easy to define.

International free trade is the ultimate ideal for the world. But there are two reasons why this ultimate ideal for the world is not the ideal for the United States in the present stage of the world's progress.

First. Free trade and fair trade are not synonymous terms. They are synonymous terms only when the free trade is reciprocal. New York receives freely all the products of Pennsylvania's industry. Pennsylvania receives freely all the products of New York's industry. This is free trade. It is also fair trade. But if Pennsylvania refuses to receive the products of New York's industry, while New York receives freely the products of Pennsylvania's industry, the trade would be free only on one side. It would not be fair trade. It could hardly properly be called free trade. We believe in reciprocity, and in free trade only so far as it is reciprocal. It is not national selfishness for a nation to protect the interests of its citizens. That is what the nation is for. If America were to

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throw open its markets to Germany, while Germany did not throw open its markets to America, the trade would not be reciprocal trade, nor fair trade. It could hardly even be called free trade. We are not in favor of abolishing the protective principle while other nations with which we are trading maintain the protective principle. We are in favor of the mutual exchange of national products on a basis fair to both the trading nations; that is, we are in favor of reciprocity. Where the industrial conditions are substantially the same in both communities, reciprocity might well be free trade, provided free trade is adopted by both countries. We should be glad to see absolute free trade between this country and Canada, because the industrial and economic conditions in the two countries are substantially the same.

Second. The most important problem which confronts America to-day (as it is the most important problem which confronts other countries) is, economically stated, the more equable division of wealth. The danger of despotism in this country is not from barons, but from coal barons; not from kings, but from railway kings; not from military captains, but from captains of industry. This is not because coal barons, railway kings, or captains of industry are bad men; it is because any system which concentrates irresponsible power in the hands of the few is a bad system, no matter how good the few may be. The remedy for this peril is, first, regulation of that power by the Nation, and secondly, such legislation as will tend to take away the power by taking away the concentration of wealth in the hands of a few. We need, to quote James Russell Lowell, a "giving to the hands not so large a share as to the brain, but a larger share than hitherto in the wealth they must combine to produce."

Such a distribution of wealth is essential to National welfare because it means development of character. It means shorter hours of manual labor, more time for rest and development for the laboring man, better food, better homes, better sanitary conditions. It means the abolition of child labor, the release of the wife and the mother from the factory and the mine that she may give herself wholly to her home, provision of labor for the unemployed, and the emancipation of workingmen from anything that approximates the dependence of serfdom. Americans can have some hope of accomplishing this result for America; it is a great task, but not an impossible task. Americans can have no hope of accomplishing this result directly for the world; that would be a task too great to be possible. We can raise the wages, shorten the hours of labor, and improve the conditions for the comparatively few millions of manual laborers in America. We cannot expect to accomplish the same result for the four hundred millions of China. To allow the ill-paid labor of such a country free access to America, either in the person of the laborer or in the product of his labor, is to make impossible the solution of our great National problem, the abolition of poverty and the equalization of wealth.

In common with others of our fellow-citizens we are fascinated by the vision of a time coming when all the nations of the earth will be federated in one republic of the world; when trade will be as free between nations as it now is between the States of the Union; when a supreme international tribunal will settle all questions which may arise between the nations, and a parliament of the world may deliberate upon their common concerns. But that time is not yet. Meanwhile we advocate reciprocity rather than free trade, and such tariff legislation as will enable us to abolish pauperism and servile labor in our own land without attempting the heroic but impossible task of abolishing them throughout the world. We believe that this is the best way to accelerate the ultimate international ideal.

We are fully aware of the moral dangers to the Nation in the attempt to apply the principle of protection in practical legislation. We recognize the fact that the principle has often been so applied as to promote special interests at the expense of the general welfare, and so as to promote a political bargaining, commonly called log-rolling, the moral evils of which far outweigh any economic advantages which such legislation can bring to the country. But we believe, at least we hope, that it is possible to escape these moral dangers and yet preserve the

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economic advantage and the general development of National welfare which it brings in its train.

But protection should protect all the people of the United States, not some at the expense of others. It should not protect monopolists, and trust to their generosity or their justice to distribute the benefits of protection to their wage-earners in increased wages. If we protect the producer from foreign competition, we must protect the consumer from extravagant prices. And this we must do both by so adjusting the tariff that to raise the prices unreasonably to the consumer will be to invite foreign competition, and by bringing the manufacturers under such regulation as will protect the public from extortionate combinations. The tariff should be—The Outlook believes it can be—so adjusted that its industrial benefits will inure with something like approximate equality to all the people.

If this is to be done, there must be an end to wholesale tariff revision, with the bargaining which inevitably accompanies it. The revision must be schedule by schedule. And there must be an end to ignorant revision by a mass-meeting based on hearings of interested parties clamorous for special benefits. The revision must be based on the reports of a scientific, non-partisan commission. The Outlook believes that by this method the country can obtain, what we think the country never has obtained in the past, a tariff framed for the general welfare.

The Outlook expects to see the political issue in 1912 so framed as to present to the American people a choice between two policies: one tending to open the American market to all the world, in the faith that world-wide competition, aided by criminal prosecutions, will break up monopolies; the other tending to encourage home industries by excluding competition from the underpaid labor of other countries, in the faith that the careful supervision and rigid regulation of great combinations by the Federal Government will prevent the evils produced by monopoly. It does not expect to see these issues clearly defined in the platforms of the two parties; but it hopes to see these two tendencies so indicated that the people can decide between them.

A WOMAN IN PUBLIC LIFE

Carlyle's clamorous appeal for silence did not touch the hearts of his contemporaries, although it undoubtedly expressed the desire of many of them. Life is so strident, publicity so general, notoriety so common, that one hesitates to lift the veil even on a shining career. But it must be remembered that almost numberless unworthy lives are commemorated chiefly in the record of some sort of evil-doing, while, for the most part, the harmonious and fruitful careers go unrecorded. From time to time some man who hates publicity, some woman who shrinks from its glare, must be sacrificed for the sake of an inspiring example. A woman of seventy-five died not long ago and left a great place vacant in the city of St. Joseph, Missouri. She came of a distinguished intellectual lineage, and the moral and intellectual impulse of her ancestry passed through her into the whole community. Mrs. Constance Faunt Le Roy Runcie was the granddaughter of Robert Owen, who has often been called the father of co-operative Socialism, and a niece of Robert Dale Owen, the friend and adviser of Mr. Lincoln, and a radical reformer. Mrs. Runcie's childhood was spent in New Harmony, Indiana, where the interest of people was largely in the future, and the background one of moral enthusiasm rather than of artistic or social richness. The young girl at sixteen went with her uncle, who had been appointed United States Minister to Italy, and spent six years in study and travel, devoting herself with great enthusiasm to the modern languages, to music and drawing, modifying this strenuous curriculum by the study of dancing. Much of this broader and later education was secured at Stuttgart, where her natural affinity with the best things and her facility in becoming familiar with them attracted the attention of her teachers. On her return Mrs. Runcie traveled extensively in this country; and, when she finally reached New Harmony, she found the Episcopal church closed and the parish without a pastor. She showed her unconventional zeal and her religious enthusiasm by reopening the church and conducting worship, with a preaching service, for three years, reviving

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the suspended activities and recalling to their allegiance the scattered congregation. This unusual experience found a happy ending in the marriage of the young woman to the Rev. Dr. Runcie, who had previously been rector of the church.

Mrs. Runcie followed her husband to St. Joseph, where for eighteen years he was rector of an Episcopal church, dying twenty-two years ago. The first woman's club in America was organized in New Harmony by Mrs. Runcie on the 20th of September, 1855. This was nine years before the organization of the Sorosis Club of New York. In 1867 Mrs. Runcie formed the Brontë Club, and later became the head of an organization which has since that time borne her own name, and of which she was elected president for life. During this period she edited a church paper, gave piano recitals, represented St. Joseph at the Chicago Exposition as Chairman of the Committee on Music and the Drama, and later was made one of the honorary vice-presidents of the National Federation of Women's Clubs. At the biennial convention of the Federation of Women's Clubs held in St. Paul five years ago the title of "Mother of Clubs" was conferred upon her, and two years later, at a similar gathering in Boston, she was received with signal honors as the pioneer in the club movement.

The tireless activity of this gifted and influential woman remained almost unaffected by severe illnesses. She was finally compelled to abandon her career as a concert pianist, but nothing could dim the ardor of her spirit or the quality of her mind. The whole community felt the invigorating influence of her wide interest and her high ideals. The club which bore her name for many years was a manifold expression of her personality. She had traveled extensively, read widely, and from the beginning of her life had lived in a most stimulating atmosphere. But the breadth of her intellectual interests and the somewhat radical air of her environment never disturbed the clearness of her spiritual vision nor the anchorage of her soul in fundamental religious faith. In a very unusual way she held fast by faith, while opening the door of her life to every kind of knowledge. Her extraordinary physical vitality, in spite of much pain, was due in no small measure to the serenity of her outlook upon life, her broad interests, the nourishment of her nature by her sympathies and affections. She was a born optimist, as vital people are apt to be. The foundations of her character were faith, joy, and enthusiasm. Although anchored in a quiet town, she found association with many of the most interesting men and women of her time through correspondence. She was a delightful letter-writer, and her letters had a quality of their own, a marked individuality of point of view and of temperament. Such a career does not end when the last words are spoken, nor can it be summed up in any brief account of what happened to it by the way. Its fountain quality gives it a broad and continuous power of fertilization. Mrs. Runcie was a fine example of a woman in public life, if by public life one means the life of a community and of a generation.

THE SPECTATOR

The Yard was hung thick with Japanese lanterns, and hurrying seniors, in cap and gown, were rushing by. Class Day is a day when a senior has no possible time to spare—except for a pretty girl. Its functions begin with chapel at nine, and end with a "spread" that spreads somewhere into the next day, and it keeps going like a three-ringed circus all the while. Class Day at one's own Alma Mater is a thing that cannot possibly be dispassionately observed, since one is part of it and in its whirl. But Class Day somewhere else is interesting as a spectacle, and so the Spectator was glad to be under the elms at Cambridge and see how the Harvard seniors and graduates celebrated the occasion.

There were so many of them, to begin with. In a small college Class Day can be intimate. But when there is a senior class of six hundred odd, and thousands of graduates are there for their biennials, triennials, decennials, and all the rest of it up to the half-century mark, the day must become one either of dignity or hopeless disorder. As a result, certain large and definite functions evolve, and form a

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framework for the whole. The Spectator, who enjoyed the friendship of a member of the senior class, found himself provided with a series of tickets, of most picturesque variety, with woodcuts of the Yard, the Stadium, etc., on their backs, to admit the bearer to the main events of the day; and he accordingly started with the morning exercises in Sanders Theater.

How many pretty girls there were filling that audience hall! Not even the present fashions could eclipse them. They rose superior from weird combinations of chiffon and silk, and were radiant in hats that seemed guaranteed to quench all possible good looks. But, lovely as they were, they yielded in interest to the mothers—bless them!—who, there by the score and hundred, in homely serge or stately satin, each watched, with the same mother-look of ineffable satisfaction, the marching file of cap-and-gowned youths taking their places in the center. If the Spectator were a painter seeking a subject that should go down the ages with universal appeal, he would paint a portrait "Mother Watching Her Son Graduate" that would express more in its way than the usual run of Madonnas. And yet to see that file of students coming in, double marching, one line from each side, filling, like a rising tide, every seat in the orchestra chairs, and still welling out till the stage was overflowed and extra chairs needed in the aisles—it ended by creating a dark, uneasy thought that perhaps (just *perhaps*, of course) there might be more than enough of them to satisfy the world's hunger for college men.

Nevertheless, if the class listened to their orator, they were safe. Wisdom resides in the young nowadays, and wisdom certainly flowed from his persuasive lips. He was of the stature of David, but he was quite ready for Goliath, with the two stones of loyal fellowship and moral ideals in his college sling. It is interesting to see that the coming generation is on to the world's latest curves. It does not deliver the out-of-date oration, but the up-to-date one. This was no lofty advice as to how to reform the world by college condescension. It urged rather the fact that all life was one, that the college course was useless unless it formed part of practical living in the world outside, that co-operation and combination were the forces to be used to-day, and that education was sterile unless the educated man entered heartily into the active progress of the community, bringing with him the spirit of fellowship. The class applauded tumultuously when their orator finished, so he evidently spoke their mind. Then came the class poem, and an ode which everybody, standing, joined in singing—to "Fair Harvard," of course.

All the pretty girls were going somewhere—to this spread or that—but the prettiest of them seemed to gather at noon at the Hasty Pudding, a far-famed spot which the Spectator found most entertaining. It is a building where college life has its most pictorial high jinks, and it looks the part. The special decorations that day were of yellow and white, the class colors, profusely festooned about the hall (where the musicians sat on the gay little stage), the parlors, the library rooms upstairs where the tables were spread, and the mammoth refreshment tent outside in the grassy yard. But the real decorations were the posters of the Hasty Pudding plays, private and public. "We have one big play a year," the Spectator's young host explained, "and two or three just for ourselves, here. We try out our members that way, besides having great fun at it." The musicians were playing Hasty Pudding music, and the pretty girls, having devoted as little time as possible to the salads and ices of the luncheon, were dancing merrily over the polished floor with eager partners. Romulus and Remus, cheek by jowl with Romeo and Juliet, danced above them on the walls. Diana as a débutante and a monstrous strawberry with Alpine climbers all over it smiled down upon the couples. Skirt-dancers, blackamoors, sailors, astrologers, automobilists, all sorts and conditions of caricatured characters, lured the eye on from one wall to another in five times fifty-seven varieties of fun-making. The hundred students who form the Pudding and all the graduates who have ever been members are welcome on Class

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Day, and about a thousand seemed to be there—at least tent, hall, and building were packed, and more kept arriving every minute.

One would think that to crowd the Stadium would be a more difficult job. It was successfully done, though, by four o'clock, when the classes, led by '86 and headed by a brass band, began to march toward its classic portals. A Greek temple—the same used in the Greek play—had been set up near one end of the mighty oval as the chord to the desired arc. The amphitheater thus set off held thousands, but not one seat was empty. From the top to the bottom tier on tier of gay color rioted, like a great poppy-garden—not to mention the graceful festoons of evergreen, tied with Harvard crimson, which decorated the colonnade high against the blue and the barrier of the amphitheater. As each class came in to the accompaniment of martial music the marchers removed their hats as one man, and then paused to give a complete and painstaking class cheer, which '86 did very well, though twenty-five years out of practice; while '01 was a rollicking spectacle, headed by a tremendous banner, with which four men struggled in the wind, and a chariot in which sat a small boy driving a large team with ribbon reins. A placard over him announced

> The original 1901
> CLASS BABY
> There are 412 others

Over the marching lines behind the chariot came the sign "*These are the fathers*," and then, over a small group, the clamant announcement

> Ladies!!!
> Here are the Bachelors

which provoked loud feminine applause. The class of '08 had two May-poles and a Scotch bag-piper. After they had cheered for an indefinite time, they formed around the poles and danced a May-pole dance on the sward.

Last of all, when all their predecessors had arranged themselves in close-packed groups sitting on the grass, the seniors arrived, in caps and gowns, with their marshal and orator, and swung into the amphitheater, the band and the cheering each trying to overtop the other. Every one in the audience was looking for some one senior in the ranks, and no one, not even a mother, could recognize anybody in that sea of swiftly passing faces. One got a composite photograph of the senior face, and that was all, before the tumult and the shouting died, and everybody sat down again to listen to the Ivy oration—a sparkling draught from the cup of youth, poured out on the smiling air of what the orator called "this Stadium's gloriously genial bowl—which cheers but not inebriates." Then came more cheers, and the handing over of the banner to the coming class, and then all sorts of assorted cheers, ending with "three long Harvards, three times three, and three long ladies," to which all the ladies, long and short, responded enthusiastically. And now from every tier of the high expanse came flying threads of glowing color, by the scores, by the hundreds, by the thousands. The confetti battle was on.

For five minutes ushers with heaped baskets of confetti and bolts of gay paper ribbon had been passing through the audience, and every one had something to throw down into the grassy bowl. Wires had been cunningly stretched in an invisible framework, and as the flying ribbons shot forth and unrolled in curling cascades they were supported by the wires and gathered, first like a net of color and then like a shimmering horseshoe fall, veiling the whole face of the amphitheater in a blaze of mingled orange and blue and white and pink and green and crimson and violet—a rainbow fallen out from the clouds, and entangled in the falling. The rain of confetti showered the arena with broken color, and through it all rose in music "Fair Harvard" once more. A confetti battle and a stadium form a stunning combination—and then, that tune! The Spectator went on to the Beck Hall spread, feeling a trifle envious of Harvard's advantages. It used to be said that "at Harvard all a man got was an education;" but Class Day knocks that epigram in the head once for all.

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What Shall We Do With It?

The Next Vital Question About the Panama Canal Answered by the Canal's Builder

Colonel Goethals

An Interview by Hayden Talbot

THERE is a great task confronting Colonel George W. Goethals in addition to the work of construction of the Panama Canal. It is trying to convince Congress that the finished Canal must be operated as it is being dug—with one man in supreme command. To one man must be intrusted absolute control of the Canal Zone if we are to operate the waterway successfully. Congress must risk home and foreign criticism that an absolute monarchy has been established under the Stars and Stripes. Let the one-man domination of this strip of land be relaxed—it would be Bedlam let loose over night.

Colonel Goethals is the man who for three years on the Canal Zone has been as surely an absolute monarch as ever inherited a throne. Army men are not generally loquacious. The men at work on the Canal, from Commission members to the least important Jamaican Negro flagman, have a decided antipathy to writers—an antipathy born of much injury at the hands of "fifteen-minute investigators," to use a Canal expression. But Colonel Goethals has spent the better part of a week setting forth for my edification the details of his plan of operating the Canal. He told most of it to Congress on his recent visit to Washington, but his story as he told it to me gives in simpler terms the answer to a question which he says will soon be asked by the whole country, "Now we've got it, what are we going to do with it?" Also he admits frankly that he wants the weight of public opinion with him in his endeavor to make Congress see the advisability of putting into effect his radical programme.

The three vital questions that Colonel Goethals is urging Congress to determine are: first, the question of the toll rate; second, the question of the permanent organization on the Canal Zone; and, third, the relation of the Panama Railroad to the completed Canal. Speed in determining these questions is not only essential, according to his views, but of vital importance. That he should regard thus urgent matters which seem at most more than three years distant is perhaps the most striking evidence of his ability to boss the job. To talk with him dispels all doubt as to the truth of the statement that he is two years ahead of the work.

To make it clear why the operation of the Canal can be conducted successfully only under a one-man domination it is necessary to show that the digging had to be a one-man job. When Colonel Goethals first became identified with the Canal, in 1907, President Roosevelt combined two Isthmian Canal Commission positions and made him Chairman and Chief Engineer. In January, 1908, an Executive order by the President authorized him to assign the members of the Commission to such duties as he saw fit. Thus all the members of the Commission became his subordinates at the heads of various departments.

The Zone version of the upheaval that followed Colonel Goethals's arrival on the job includes an account of the parting between the new Chairman and the retiring Chief Engineer, John F. Stevens. At this time Colonel Goethals was sure the job was too stupendous for any one man. He told Mr. Stevens so. "It is too big a job for one man," Mr. Stevens is said to have replied, "unless that one man is absolute boss." Unconfirmed rumor which has universal credence from Ancon to

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Cristobal portrays Stevens driven desperate by the friction and wrangling among his six fellow-Commissioners. Wearying of the constant interference and consequent holding up of his plans, it is said he cabled the White House that his word on a certain subject must be accepted as final or he would resign. The known fact is that his resignation was accepted by cable.

In the nine months during which the new Chairman was discovering the truth of Stevens's statement he was gradually making himself absolute boss. He assumed little by little the functions of his fellow-Commissioners and then went to Washington and explained the situation to President Roosevelt, with as a result the Executive order making him in fact absolute boss. And Colonel Goethals has been boss in every sense of the word—not a gold-lace, un-get-at-able martinet, but a regular, sure-enough boss of a regular construction job. It was no longer a case of going from one to another of a dozen department heads and sub-heads, each one shifting responsibility and sparring always for time. If any one had a grievance, from a Jamaican Negro laborer to a dynamite salesman, there was just one man to see. "Tell It to the Colonel" became the title of a Canal Zone poem. This in itself, Colonel Goethals says, is sufficient evidence of the necessity for a one-man control of the Canal Zone for all time. Under such conditions he believes a seven-headed Commission couldn't control anything.

One of the first things he learned was that the personal equation was the biggest factor in the whole job. Of course the thirty thousand laborers had their gang foremen to appeal to, but the foremen and the six thousand American employees had nobody to whom to tell their troubles or with whom to discuss their ideas. It occurred to Colonel Goethals that they should all be able to talk it over with the boss. It had been borne in on him that the American people with their $375,000,000 were not digging the Canal; the two Presidents and the Congressional delegations who have visited the Zone now and again had really nothing to do with the work; the Commission was at best only a necessary evil; the Canal was being dug, individually and only, by each of the sweating men on steam-shovels, on the dirt trains, on hydraulic fill. That is the firm conviction of every one of them to-day. Instead of trying any missionary work to enlighten them as to his own importance or even to point out the relative importance of the providers of the wages, Colonel Goethals figured it was the best plan to take advantage of their sense of individual proprietorship.

This explains how it happens that Colonel Goethals calls many of his foremen and steam-shovel men and locomotive engineers by their names—and never mistakes Smith for Jones. And he is with them in the mud about Gatun Dam or slipping over rain-soaked rocks in Culebra Cut nearly every working day from seven o'clock in the morning until noon. Frequently Smith has an idea at variance with the plans of the engineers. He and "the Colonel" talk it over. Smith always figures more prominently than the Colonel. After the talk is finished, Smith, however much his intentions may have changed, goes back to his gang and explains how "he and the Colonel" decided to fix it. Colonel Goethals, for this reason among others, is called a politician and an actor—terms which, for some reason or other, seem to bear a most venomous sting. His answer to such slander, accepting it as it is meant, is that the Canal is going to be finished eighteen months ahead of time.

"The men who are digging the Canal," says Colonel Goethals, "are inspired with an enthusiasm that would make them go at the whole of Gold Hill and raze it before breakfast any morning—if they were made mad enough. It isn't safe to suggest in the hearing of any of them that slides in Culebra Cut are going to bother us. Such a remark is taken as a personal insult. With such an organization there can't be 'engineering problems.' The most dignified term that can be applied to the most untoward setback is 'a tough job.' And no *contretemps* is so tough as to lessen the enthusiasm of these men, each one the individual digger of the Canal.

"The best evidence, of all the data I have collected in these three years, that the running of the Canal will always be primarily a personal problem is contained in a letter which some day I am going to frame. Mrs. Jones, whose husband's pay

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is $150 a month, discovered that Mrs. Smith, whose husband draws $125, had procured from the quartermaster's department a student lamp—before the electric lighting system had been installed. Mrs. Jones, when electric lights were installed in her house, gave up her student lamp. And then one day she called on Mrs. Smith and found that the Smith household still held, besides the electric fixtures, the student lamp. Settling the question of the student lamp caused me more trouble than the biggest slide that ever hit Culebra Cut."

The reason that it will prove just as necessary, if not more so, to have one man boss the running of the Canal is that it is going to prove a bigger job to operate it than to construct it. To compare two gigantic undertakings and conclude correctly which is of greater relative importance, particularly when neither is an assured, tried-out fact, may seem presumptuous. Right or wrong, Colonel Goethals is proceeding on the theory that the biggest task Congress faces is to prepare to run the Canal, and he thinks preparations must be made with all possible speed.

His work is made the harder because of a natural enough belief that he is interesting himself in the operation of the Canal because he wants the job. All he will say in this connection is that he expects to leave the Canal Zone when the work he was sent to do has been done. But he denies that his work stops with bossing the digging. His experience on the job has shown him that unpreparedness for any stage of such an undertaking as this is nothing short of criminal. What he has urged on Congress is that it avoid a repetition of the chaotic conditions that delayed the work of excavation from 1904 to 1907. Not because he has any idea that he will be the man to boss the operation of the Canal has he urged his plea for immediate action. It is because he feels that the American people have done nothing to deserve losing millions and millions of dollars—a certain result of procrastination.

Little thought had been given to this matter of one-man control on the Canal Zone, either on the Isthmus or in the United States. Such faint ideas as have been formulated in the layman's mind as to the way the Canal is to be run doubtless begin and end with a mental picture of a sober-visaged engineer seated on a raised dais on a lock, his simple job being to press a button, preferably a mother-of-pearl button, and in this wise to lift a 30,000-ton ship from sea-level to Gatun Lake. In point of fact, the mechanical operation of the locks will require an organization of highly efficient, expert mechanics. But the waterway and the machinery for putting ships through it are not all that must be considered. There is the Canal Zone, 500 square miles of potential jungle, peopled by 12,000 Americans and five times as many natives. The administration of government on the Zone is hardly less important than the operation of the Canal. Congress knows now that a continuation of a seven-headed Commission can be had only at great cost. But also it knows that a one-man control is in spite of law. If permanently the Canal and the Zone are to be under the domination of one man, Congress must change existing laws.

If Congress refuses to adopt Colonel Goethals's plan, there will be turned loose an army of American expert mechanics, jobless and job-hunting, who will return to the United States no later than next summer, after years of plenty as beneficiaries of a paternalism raised to the *n*th degree. Their attitude toward labor conditions at home may well engage the attention of American employers. A dirt train conductor on the Canal gets $190 a month. He gets a good house rent free, edibles virtually at cost, flowers for his piazza and lawn free. Six weeks' vacation and thirty days' sick leave with pay are allowed each year. He must spend a convalescence period of at least one week, if he has been in hospital, with pay, on Taboga Island, the watering resort of the Zone, as soon as he is discharged from the hospital, where medical attendance is free. Right now there are more than twelve thousand Americans, men, women, and children, who are being educated to accept these conditions as their due. Can any sane citizen consider it a wise course to let this army lay down its tools when the Canal is dug and return to existing labor conditions in the United States? That will be all they can do if Congress

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provides nothing for them to do on the Zone.

Another inevitable result of delay by Congress now will be the edifying spectacle of a perfectly constructed Canal empty of shipping. Although nominally three and a half years will elapse before the Canal is opened, the fact is, the Canal will be ready for ships to make the passage from ocean to ocean within two years—ready, that is, in the sense that there will be a continuous waterway across the Isthmus. Is it not absurd to finish the job and then neglect making preparations which must be made before ever a ship can be locked up onto Gatun Lake? No, it is not absurd. It is criminal.

A month or so prior to January 1, 1915, there is going to be heard from one end of the country to another a howl—a great big patriotic howl anticipating the glorious event of the world's warships passing through the Canal. Is it anything less than horrible to contemplate the consequences of trying to put those ships through with an organization of green, untried men? Rather than dwell on this sorrowful possibility, let me point out another, even more unhappy.

Prompt action, or, more properly, speedy announcement of such action by Congress, is all that can prevent the loss of tens of millions of dollars of revenue from tolls in the first ten years of the Canal's operation. The whole commercial world, as represented by the International Navigation Congress, which meets in Liverpool annually, is awaiting some announcement from the United States as to its policy in operating the Canal. Our own great corporations are no less curious, the question of their becoming ship-builders on their own account depending solely on what we offer in the way of service and price. It takes two years to build a freighter. No shorter length of time will serve as notice for deep-sea shippers when it is a matter of changing century-old trade routes. If no word is forthcoming from us, these shippers will do the next best thing—perfect arrangements for their vessels to follow routes long established and of known character.

Viewed in a less commercial spirit, procrastination means inevitable mismanagement of the Canal in the beginning. Conditions following the opening of the Canal will be even more deplorable than the state of affairs that existed during the early days of our occupation of the Zone. Over and above the monetary loss, we shall risk losing half the prestige we have won by digging the Canal. Setting aside every other consideration, the hurt to us as a Nation of making a botch of handling our own proposition is serious enough.

Colonel Goethals does not anticipate that any of these dread things will really happen. He emphasizes the consequences of delay in order to emphasize the need for action. The American people a short time ago were yelling, "Make the dirt fly!" Colonel Goethals would be glad to have them cry now, "Make the Canal pay!" He believes that our first duty, having put $375,000,000 into this ditch, is to get it back. He has as little time for altruists who declare that the Canal is altogether for strategical purposes and is not a money-making plant as for poetic souls who chant about our joining two mighty oceans. He contends that there can never be anything more neutral about the Canal Zone than there is about New York. Inasmuch as we have paid for it and for the Canal, they are ours, all ours, to run as we deem best, and, above all, to run in business fashion.

"Provision," says Colonel Goethals, "if made now, can be made for the permanent employment of virtually one-half of the Americans now at work on the Canal, and the new jobs will be awaiting them as soon as the final water level is reached. Thus can be reduced by one-half the number of home-returning job-hunters. They will form the operating organization. To train them to handle the Canal machinery will take all of eighteen months. The enormous amount of machinery connected with the locks and the operation of the locks and gates, not to mention the difficulties we are going to experience with the electrical appliances because of the great amount of moisture that we have to contend with, make it absolutely necessary that everything be thoroughly tried out and tuned up before the Canal is officially opened. The only way to train an organization and find the minor weaknesses in the machinery is to put both to work. For that purpose we must

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have ships, big ships and little ships, commanded by cranky skippers in a hurry and affable skippers of extraordinary stupidity. We must induce shippers to use the Canal as soon as it is ready. And we must insist that they pay tolls, the full rate.

"In this connection it is well to point out that the phrase, recently coined, 'experimental operation,' is at the same time unfortunate and inaccurate. There will be nothing experimental about the operation of the Canal the first day we use it. The only unfavorable thing we must expect is that, instead of our being able to handle four ships in a lock at one time, and putting them from deep water to deep water in eight hours, we shall probably accept only one ship at a time, and at first take a day or more to put it through. The only difference it can make to shippers is in the matter of time. That is negligible during this preliminary period. And getting this actual experience in operating for eighteen months will fit the organization to put through the world's battle-ship fleets, on the occasion of the official opening, at the maximum rate of speed.

"Leaving out of the question for the moment the question of tolls, which is obviously of first importance, let me outline the uses to which I want the organization now in existence put. First, it must be known that the Canal will bring Singapore nearer to Bremen than the Suez Canal brings it. But shippers in Germany are not preparing to change their routes to the Orient yet. Shorter distance alone, with even an equal toll rate, is not enough to influence Germany or any other Power to route her Orient trade via Panama. We must offer other considerations. We must offer, besides perfect service through the Canal itself, and at a rate beyond competition, service heretofore denied deep-sea shipping everywhere except at terminal ports. We must be able to take charge of a ship from the moment she enters the Canal, and by the time she has reached open water on the other side have made her, to all intents and purposes, a new ship if she needs that much fixing. If we keep in operation our machine shops, if we build and run coaling stations at both ends of the Canal, if we have huge laundries with a day and night force, if we have on hand materials of every kind a ship can need, from foodstuffs to engine parts—if, in a word, the United States will do what it never has yet done, exactly what individuals and corporations will do if we don't, establish a business management on the Canal Zone, then we can get that $375,000,000 back.

"If such a plant is equipped, we can offer irresistible advantages to the shippers of the world. Sure of a constant, one-price coal supply, ship-owners could cut their bunker capacity in two, with a consequent increase in cargo-carrying capacity. Oil-burning ships could similarly increase their cargo-carrying capacity. The space devoted to the ship's laundry could be cleared for freight. Only one-half the present food supply need be carried. Shippers would know that repairs, however difficult, could be made in many instances while the ship was in transit through the Canal. All this I have urged done—not by a private corporation with the usual preferential rate system—but by the United States. Supposing it is a new rôle for Uncle Sam. It is feasible, it is beyond a doubt profitable, and it is in keeping with the spirit in which the Canal is being dug.

"If we don't run the business end of the Canal, it will be administered by huge private interests which will effectually block our attempts to make the waterway a one-price institution. For the commercial possibilities are such as to tempt trust magnates quite as strongly as newly discovered gold-fields draw wild-eyed prospectors. There is a fortune to be made by the concern that gets and holds the upper hand in the matter of coaling stations on the Zone. I want that 'concern' to be the United States. If we control the coal supply, we can offer at a reasonable, unchanging price the best grade of Pocohontas and New River coals and still make a profit. We are in the best position to run the coaling stations because, by experiments lasting over four years, we have found the grade of coal best suited for use in the tropics—a question which has gone unsolved since steamships began to ply the waters within twenty degrees of the equator. In this particular grade of West Virginia coal the dampness during the

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rainy season causes less deterioration, and in the subsequent dry spells it has proved that spontaneous combustion is less likely to occur."

The United States Steel Corporation has had an agent on the Zone for the past two months. It is understood that the Steel Trust is planning now to offset the loss of profits that reciprocity with Canada will entail. Steps are now being taken by this concern to open trade relations with South America and the west coast of North America on a vast scale. It depends altogether on what action Congress takes regarding fixing the toll rate whether the Steel Trust turns ship-builder and becomes one of the most important users of the Canal. Another big company in Baltimore is ready to build sixteen-knot ships for the coastwise trade, and it is only a question of tolls whether it will build these ships. In the office of Colonel Goethals on the Zone the question of tolls is hammered at him from countless sources every day.

Compared with the fight Congress contemplates in planning how to make the Canal a paying proposition, the competition facing an independent oil-refiner is like benevolent co-operation. In the Tehuantepec route is a vigorous competitor which has long resorted to the preferential rate system. Although there is nothing stable about Tehuantepec rates, Colonel Goethals figures that we can charge as much as $1.40 per ton and still compete. Nobody except the parties directly concerned knows how much favored shippers pay for passage via Tehuantepec. The administrators of the Suez Canal are not asleep. Plans for the enlarging of that Canal and improving its service in a hundred ways are already under way.

Colonel Goethals will not discuss the matter of transferring free of charge American shipping, a plan advanced by those who believe the Canal should be regarded in the same light as the Hudson River. Against such a move is primarily our agreement with Great Britain under the terms of which our shipping may receive no preference in rates or otherwise. Another suggestion is that a cut rate be given to American coastwise trade. A way around the treaty hindrance—to repay out of the United States Treasury the amount of tolls paid by American shippers—has been suggested. These suggestions have the unqualified approval of our biggest shipping interests. It is doubtful if Congress will consent to disguise a ship subsidy by inaugurating a cut-rate schedule of tolls through the Canal.

It is known that the railways are vigorously opposing Colonel Goethals's suggestion that a flat rate of $1 per ton be fixed for all classes of shipping using the Canal. The transcontinental carriers insist that such a rate would make competition by them impossible. In combating this statement Colonel Goethals points to the fact that the greater the traffic through the Canal, the greater the increase of short-haul business to the railways, from coast points to inland cities.

"But Congress is not concerned with the gain or loss of corporation profits," concludes Colonel Goethals. "What the United States is interested in is getting back that $375,000,000. Not the least good reason for Congress to pay heed to this matter is that not very long after the Canal is opened Americans are going to suspect things. Within a year after our tourists begin steaming through the Canal, Gatun Dam—which won't look like a dam at all, but just a low, flat-topped hill—will be covered with rank jungle growth. One can hear now a wise, observant tourist, regarding that unreal-looking dam, ask heatedly, 'Where in thunder did the money go?'

"And I shall be the last one to blame him. There is no question that if we were to start all over again, we could dig the Canal much more cheaply. But that in no wise minimizes the necessity for our getting the other fellows to pay us all it is worth to use it. On the contrary, it is the very reason we must bend every energy to making the operation of the Canal a paying business proposition."

Colonel Goethals's plan includes wiping out of existence the separate corporation (in fact, the United States) which owns and operates the Panama Railroad. His idea is to have the railway run by the "one-man power" which he would have dominate every other form of activity within the limits of the Canal Zone.

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A FRENCHMAN TO AMERICANS

BY BARON D'ESTOURNELLES DE CONSTANT

In all ages a high humanitarian spirit and love of freedom have marked the best Frenchmen, as in 1776 we had cause to know. These two qualities characterize the ideals and labors of Baron d'Estournelles de Constant. He was born in La Flèche, in the Department of the Sarthe. He began his diplomatic career at London in 1880, was then sent to Tunis, and in 1884 found himself First Secretary of Legation at The Hague, with which his future career was to be so closely associated. During his term of office at the Dutch capital he married. He returned to London as Counselor of Embassy, and in 1895 was elected a Deputy from his native town. His position in public affairs had become so eminent that the Government sent him as delegate to the First Hague Peace Conference. At its close he undertook a lecture tour—similar to that from which he has now returned—his object being to spread abroad information as to what had been accomplished at The Hague and what was proposed to be accomplished at the Second Conference. In 1902 he suggested to President Roosevelt the desirability of opening the activities of the newly constituted International Court of Arbitration by submitting to it the case of the Pius Fund of Mexico. The plan was carried out, and thus the work of the Court was started—a work which has proceeded ever since in ever-increasing influence. The same year Baron d'Estournelles founded in the French Parliament the so-called "Groupe de l'Arbitrage," composed to-day of 515 members of the two Chambers. In 1905 the Baron transferred his legislative energies from the Chamber of Deputies to the Senate; he was elected from his native Department of the Sarthe. What is more, he was elected on a programme outlined by himself, the chief plank of which was International Conciliation. He had already shown what he could do personally with regard to practical methods of international conciliation; for two years previously he had organized the first visit of the French Parliament to the British Parliament. This was followed, at his initiative, by a return reception. Then came the French-Scandinavian Parliamentary visit, engineered by him. Of the Association which bears the name "Conciliation Internationale" he is appropriately the head. Also appropriately, Baron d'Estournelles was sent as delegate from France to the Second Hague Peace Conference. A review of his opinions and labors constitutes practically a review of the work of the two Hague Conferences. In him the Conferences had a singularly keen, experienced, and bold negotiator, who took his place beside the highest authorities among his fellow-delegates. This constant solicitude has been ever since the watchword of Baron d'Estournelles. It has made him a propagandist, a popularizer, a preacher; and as such his personality stands him in good stead. In Baron d'Estournelles are united the seriousness of the Englishman, the sturdiness of the German, the energy of the American, and the adaptability of those of his own race.—THE EDITORS.

THE long series of addresses which I have been giving in various parts of the United States has come to a close. I am now returning to take my place again in the Senate at Paris. But before I go, as in 1907, I should like to say a few words of cordial greeting to my friends of The Outlook, and to give them a brief résumé of my impressions.

These impressions are optimistic—as optimistic as is possible for a politician and a diplomat. I have no illusions as to the difficulties lying before the American people and the obstacles they must overcome; but I judge their future by their past, and my confidence in their final triumph is assured.

It is impossible to arrest progress; it is impossible to curb youth. The American Nation is young, and it profits by all the experiences of ancient Europe. America fully realizes the meaning of the old proverb: "If youth but knew; if age but could!" As for me, however, I go still further. My confidence in Americans is such that I fear the influence upon them of facile success more than I do that of hardships. The success of enterprises most easily achieved is often ephemeral; it frequently presages a sad to-morrow. That is, in effect, why I decided to visit in orderly progress the greatest possible number of towns and universities throughout the United States—East, West, South, North, especially in the Middle West. I went from New York to Louisiana, Texas,

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California, Oregon, Colorado—wherever I could—to tell them about the work of The Hague. For twelve years I have labored for the acceptance of The Hague policy by the various Governments. To-day that is more or less an accomplished fact. But there still remains the task of making it understood by the people at large. Unless this is done, it may follow that public opinion, after having instinctively stimulated governments to action, may fail to stand by them when it is no longer a question of signing treaties, but of carrying out arbitral decrees.

I am not, however, one of those who regret the very frank discussion concerning the plan proposed by President Taft of an unqualified treaty of arbitration between the United States, England, and France. While I am entirely in favor of the signing of such treaties, and believe that such an example set by the three great liberal nations of the world would be of incalculable value in influencing other nations, I am not in favor of signing such treaties with closed eyes. I should advise that the matter be seriously discussed, as it deserves to be; and if I should again be dubbed a dreamer by those who happily will be called to realize my dreams, I would congratulate myself on the assurance that my critics were not swayed by a passing fancy, but were acting in obedience to reason.

What could be wiser, when a government is about to sign a treaty of arbitration without reservation, than to instruct public opinion as to the extent of its agreement? On the occasion of a disagreement which may arouse the passion of the public, an ambassador, an admiral, even the head of a State, in a moment of aberration, might insult my country; this outrage might sharpen the conflict, already grave enough, and bring it to its culmination. In such a case would we be content to accept the decision of a Court of Arbitration? Had I but myself to consider, I should say "Yes" without hesitation; for my honor is in my own keeping; he who would insult it can never reach it; he but lowers himself in the attempt. But could I be certain that the people of France, England, America, would take the same calm, wise view of the matter? And should public opinion sulk and shun and urge repudiation of the treaty, should a government permit its signature to be protested, what a setback there would be for the cause of arbitration, and what a triumph for the jingoes of all countries! But what if the benefit of this treaty, by virtue of the traditional clause open to other contracting nations, and permitting them to claim the protection of the most favored nation—if the benefit of this treaty, I say, is accorded, *ipso facto*, to countries other than the United States and Great Britain? And if these countries pretend to submit to arbitration certain questions diplomatically and politically settled, although still full of moral import, and consequently apparently incapable of solution by jurisdiction, what, then, would be the attitude of a public opinion, uninstructed, unprepared, disturbed at the critical moment by the ambition of some, the ignorance of others, and the general agitation?

I am therefore not ill pleased that discussion of this question should be so general before a final decision is reached. This general discussion is the very best way to educate the public. The point is, not to take by surprise, but to instruct and conquer, public opinion.

Fortunately, we have actually to deal with a public opinion which declares itself openly for arbitration and against war. That is a good deal; but it still remains for us to create the spirit of arbitration; that is to say, willingness to carry out the arbitral decisions, *even against our own wishes*. We must make people understand, in a word, that there are drawbacks even in arbitration, just as there are mistakes in all processes of law, but that these shortcomings are nothing compared with the scourge and waste of war.

And what is the condition of this education of public opinion? I claim that in France it is far more advanced than anywhere else; that is why I am so often in a foreign land.

In England, the jingoes, happily in a minority, live under the stupendous delusion that Germany's competition could justify a war. That is a bit of childishness which cannot hold its own long under discussion, but which meanwhile blinds many well-meaning people.

In more than one country, notably in Germany, the belief is strong in the good

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effects of war. They see no further than the victories; they ignore, I will not say the reprisals, but the evils and the troubles, more and more profound, which follow in the wake of war.

In the United States you have done more to spread the principles of the Hague Conferences than any other people, because you enjoy more freedom than do other peoples. You, having no past, no neighbors, cannot realize our difficulties in Europe, and you can make innovations in this matter, as you do in economic law. Nothing hinders you; you have a clear board.

At the same time, I have been impressed by the profound, I might say even reverent, attention with which my arguments against war have been received in all public conferences; and, far from being contradicted, I have always been warmly upheld. I have addressed all sorts of audiences: in Chambers of Commerce, in clubs, in drawing-rooms, in churches and in temples, in universities. I have spoken to pupils and professors, before capitalists and workers, to rich and poor, to the old as well as to the young, to women as to men—to everybody, in fact. The whole world understands that the United States of America has accomplished much, but that much still remains for it to do; and if, unfortunately, you should arrest your development, it would be a disaster.

You have a continent for your country; for its dimensions it is relatively thinly populated. You have the time and the money to develop it for competition with the world. If you fritter away your time, your money, and your men in preparation for a war which may be avoided—a war which no one desires, and which, far from profiting any one, will bring only ruin upon you—you will be destroying with one hand what you have built up with the other. You will thereby arrest your own growth, and give to your commercial rivals—particularly to smaller, non-military nations—an advance which you will never be able to overtake. The smaller nations of the world—like Denmark, Belgium, Switzerland—become leaders in the markets of the world largely because they do not divide their power; they concentrate it in the fight for commercial supremacy. Would you, then, imitate us rather than them? Are you Americans going to adopt our European errors just as we are about to drop them? That would be the height of folly and blindness. In twenty years your sons will reproach you for not having better understood what was best for your country.

The mission of the United States, intellectually, economically, and morally, is to show a political policy wiser than that which arouses a general storm of condemnation in Europe. The policy of armament is not only ruinous, it is stupid; and that is why public opinion, more intelligent than one may suppose, will never condone it. It serves only Socialism, or, to be exact, Anarchism. That in Europe this policy finds its excuse in the mistakes, the crimes, of the past we know but too well. But why should the young United States of America put itself in line with these mistakes, instead of rendering a great service to the world by rectifying them?

The rôle of the United States is the rôle of youth, which consists in effacing, not in augmenting, the mistakes of age. Your rôle is not to lose yourself in the discords of the Old World, but to silence, or at least to lessen, these discords by utilizing the good intentions which in Europe, not always acting in harmony, often destroy themselves, while in America they unify themselves.

Germans, Englishmen, Frenchmen—rivals in Europe—have they not known how to make themselves effective in the United States? To speak only of the French, have they not gloriously followed their star, their destiny, in realizing here the dreams of Cartier, Champlain, Marquette and of the great La Salle? Did they not joyously take part, not only in the founding of your country, but in its emancipation, in the persons of Lafayette and Rochambeau? Did they not send you their great Ferdinand de Lesseps, another pioneer of a work to be completed? It is but natural that, in turn, the French should feel pride in your future and tremble to see it compromised. That is why I, with the best of my heart, mind, and brain, have spoken for three months to the American people like a friend, like a brother.

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Let me urge you to crown this work so marvelously commenced and pursued. Everywhere you have beautiful cities, centers of moral, intellectual, economic, and technical education; and yet what enormous resources are still to be taxed to meet the generous aspirations of all your people! How many more schools have you to build, to develop!

Your cities are centers of agricultural, industrial, and commercial exploitation; the cities are joined together by numerous railway lines; but in the West and the South these railways have but a single track. Hasten to double your trackage. That will be your best protection against the so-called menace of a Japanese invasion; an absurd menace, as I have said elsewhere, and as I now say as often as I think of it. These railways should unite your grain-fields, orchards, kitchen gardens, fruit gardens. You have no real railways and highways. You think you have, but you have not. You have only fragments. You have not that immense network of roads necessary for the activity and productivity of your country. Get to work; for this immense task you will never have too much money, too many men, too much time. One often hears of the wealth of France, constantly increasing during her forty years of peace. It will be well to seek an explanation. One of the principal factors of this wealth is our great roads system, which seeks out the products of the soil, even of the smallest farms, to carry them to the nearest station or to the canal or river.

You should also restore your river navigation, once flourishing, now dead. Your principal rivers, like the Mississippi and the Missouri, are apparently no longer good for anything but to inundate the country. And your forests, once the pride of the New World—forests that have appealed to the enthusiasm of Châteaubriand and of all Europe—these forests are to-day charred by fire and mutilated by ignorance or carelessness. And will you allow this butchery to proceed simultaneously with the march of civilization? It is impossible.

The spectacle of the United States of America at work preparing for its future—that is the spectacle of the world illumined by a noble example. It is the era of justice, of a new epoch succeeding that of war.

This is, in brief, what I have said before thousands and thousands of auditors in explaining to them in detail the work done at The Hague and the services already rendered by an application of the principle of arbitration. These services should be known and understood everywhere. Only so will President Taft's action—a really National step—be not only accepted but finally upheld by American public opinion, and then by that of the whole world.

WINDOWS

BY ABBIE FARWELL BROWN

The windows of the place wherein I dwell
  I will make beautiful. No garish light
  Shall enter crudely; but with colors bright
And warm and throbbing I will weave a spell
Of rainbow tracery the theme to tell
  Of seer and simple saint and noble knight,
  Beggar and king, who fought the valiant fight.
They shall transfigure even my poor cell.

And when the shadows of the night begin,
  And sifted sunbeams fall no more on me,
May I have learned to light my lamp within,
  So that the passing world may look and see
Still the fair message, though in paler hue,
Of the sweet lives who help men to live true!

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ANATOLE FRANCE

BY BRANDER MATTHEWS

THERE is an obvious significance in the fact that a score of years ago, although Renan and Taine were still alive, the most interesting personalities in French literature were three story-tellers, Zola, Daudet, and Maupassant, whereas to-day the chief figures are two critics, M. Jules Lemaître and M. Anatole France, disciples both of them rather of the caressing Renan than of the more invigorating Taine. It is true that both of these have also adventured themselves into story-telling and into playwriting, but nevertheless their tales, their novels, and their dramas are essentially critical in temper. M. France has been more persuasive and prolific than M. Lemaître in the creation of character; and yet he is also more distinctly critical in his abiding attitude. He has analyzed books, and men, and society at large, and humanity itself; and he has never let the scalpel and microscope drop from his hand. He is fundamentally a critic, even in that lower and commoner meaning of the word which limits criticism to fault-finding. His criticism is incessant, dissolving, and destructive. He is diligent in proving all things; and at the end of his inquiry he finds little or nothing true enough for him to hold fast.

A familiar French proverb declares that to understand everything is to pardon everything; and M. France understands everything—except perhaps those very commonplace virtues which sustain the social fabric; and he pardons everything, virtues as well as vices, with an equal toleration and with an equally disintegrating irony. He is the most richly cultivated of critics and the least academic. He has absorbed the essence of traditional standards while discarding all their non-essentials. His sympathetic appreciation is as unfailing as his intelligence is open; indeed, his intelligence is so open that it has rejected all formulas, ethic as well as æsthetic. He is a frank pagan, with a paganism through which Christianity has filtered, leaving only an impalpable deposit. He is full of compassion for the spectacle of human folly and of human misery; but his compassion is sustained by little hope for the dawn of a better day. To him life is a tragic farce. He is a pessimistic Anarchist who is master of an incomparable style, melodious and harmonious, musical and picturesque. He has the faculty of ever finding the fit phrase for his thought, at once beautiful in itself and exact in its precision. His style is the style of a scholar who is also a man of the world—an exquisite style, rich in thought and ripe in color, subtle and supple, fluid and limpid—a style as sinuous and enveloping as the irony which supports its iridescence. His writing is always delightful even if it is often disconcerting.

There are three strains intertwined in the modern Frenchman—Celt and Latin and Norman; and all three reveal themselves in M. France. He has the gay and girding humor of the Celt, the order and the traditional reserve of the Latin, and the sturdy obstinacy of the Norman. The inconsistencies discoverable in his writings may be ascribed to the wrestling of these three diverse inheritances. The perfect proportion and the artistic harmony of such a brief tale as "The Procurator of Judea"—one of the marvelous masterpieces of the short story—may be credited to the Latin tradition, while the deliberate formlessness of the four consecutive volumes of "Contemporary History" (in which M. Bergeret is the salient character) is Celtic in its lawless rejection of all the accepted canons of construction. The earlier short story has the severe simplicity of a Greek intaglio, the flawless perfection of a gem carved by a consummate artist, while the later and larger narrative is deliberately projected as a sprawling succession of casual episodes, each of them significant in itself. It is a thing wholly without precedent, a work of art without form, although never void. In the looseness of the thread which unites its parts it can be likened only to the wanton laxity of Sterne.

M. France's occasional kinship to Sterne is evident enough, even in his insistence upon the coarser aspects of human nature; but the French writer's scholarship is

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never second-hand, as the Englishman's was only too often. Disraeli once declared that he had been born in a library; and M. Anatole France was even more fortunate in that he was born in an old bookshop, the shelves of which were incessantly replenishing themselves as no library is likely to do. He grew up in an atmosphere of old things—old books, old bindings, old prints. He has a solid education, and he early acquired genuine erudition. He learned in his youth to distinguish the good edition—the one with the misprint on the title-page. He absorbed the Greek lyrists of the Alexandrian decadence as well as the French philosophers of the iconoclastic eighteenth century.

A child of Renan, he is a grandchild of Voltaire, although he has less arrogance than Renan and less aridity than Voltaire. The influence of Renan is indisputable, and yet the kinship with Voltaire is more obvious. We find in M. France the intellectual agility, the easy playfulness, the mordant wit, the corrosive irony, and even the occasional fondness for unclean innuendo which characterized Voltaire, who also was primarily a critic, applying touchstone and acid to every accepted belief. As Voltaire came forward in a manly fashion in defense of Calas, so M. France stood forth boldly in the dark days of the Dreyfus iniquity and did his best to bring his fellow-citizens back to the path of sanity; and here, it may be noted, his attitude was wiser and more courageous than that of M. Lemaître. M. France borrowed from Voltaire the formula of the brief philosophic story, the pertinent apologue, as significant as a primitive folk-tale. Close as may be his affiliation with Voltaire, he throws back also to Montaigne, in his frankness of speech and in his willingness to make the best of the world while thinking none too well of it.

He was earliest made known in the United States by the candid and delicious narrative called "The Crime of Sylvestre Bonnard," magically rendered into English by Lafcadio Hearn, who was sympathetically gifted to comprehend the stylist he was translating. And none of M. France's books is better fitted to win him a welcome from the English-speaking peoples. Its charm is all its own; and it represents its author at his best, before his irony had begun to corrode his own belief in mankind. It is a tender tale, human and humane, urban and urbane, touched with sentiment and tinged with romance. It is bathed in melancholy, refreshing and never saddening. It does not leave a bad taste in the mouth as "The Red Lily" does. This more elaborate and more sophisticated fiction is unfailingly clever, as it could not help being; but it may be dismissed as almost a failure in spite of all its cleverness. It seems to have been written in rivalry with M. Paul Bourget's pretentiously cosmopolitan novels of fashionable intrigue. But the significant difference is that M. Bourget takes his high-born puppets seriously; and this is just what M. France could not do.

In writing "The Red Lily" he seemed somehow to be working against the grain; and perhaps the same thing might be said of his "Histoire Comique," in which his model is rather Maupassant than Bourget. Yet this later novel is far less imitative and far more spontaneous than the earlier, even if it reveals the willful twist of indurated pessimism. Its humor, playful enough, is also a little grim; and it has even a tincture of the gruesome. It is veracious in its own way, but it does not tell the whole truth; and thus it provides us with only a distorted vision of life. It lacks the paradoxical playfulness that flashes and ripples through the "Rôtisserie de la Reine Pédauque," a narrative as æsthetically exhilarating as it is ethically unsettling. And there is the same dexterity of craftsmanship, the same appalling cleverness, in the still later "Island of Penguins," the most disenchanted of all its author's books, recalling the last part of "Gulliver's Travels" in the blank inhumanity of its chill negation. Here M. France in the twentieth century, like Swift in the eighteenth, has set before us a nightmare of misanthropy.

We find the same monotony of needless misery in "Jocaste." A pretty girl likes a young man and marries an old one; the husband is poisoned by his servant, who also kills another man, for which he is executed; the wife hangs herself; and the young man who loved her and whom she loved develops a fatal disease. There is cold-blooded cruelty in this morose

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fantasy; it is painful and profitless, a mere wantoning in ineffectual woe, with no suggested steeling of the soul for the combat of life. It is a disheartening tale, with no excuse for its existence, since it lacks the saving grace of pity. It affects to be tragic, but it lacks the inexorable inevitability of real tragedy. The characters are killed off by the author himself; and we feel that they themselves had no responsibility for their fatal acts. The final verdict on "Jocaste," and perhaps on two or three of M. France's other stories, must be that it was not worth while. His choice of theme is not always felicitous, even if the execution is ever faultless.

For his workmanship is impeccable even when his subject is abhorrent; and the result is beyond all praise when he happens upon a topic fit for his special treatment and wherein his special qualities can display themselves—in "The Procurator of Judea," for example, in which he evokes the past as with a magic glass. In his score of volumes there are perhaps a dozen other short stories, inferior only to this imaginative resuscitation of Roman life and character, as instinct with vitality, as authentic in atmosphere and as alluring, opalescent all of them with the keen interplay of wit, humor, and of scholarship sustained at once by intelligence and imagination. All of them disclose his gift of sympathetic comprehension, his searching insight, his faculty of pity. And all of them again, if we look into them closely, are seen to be the work of a critic quite as obviously as they are the work of a creative artist. In all of them we can catch the echo of negation.

These masterpieces of the short story are marvels of artistic execution as careful in structure as in style. Thus they stand in absolute antithesis to the four volumes in which we read about the sayings and doings of M. Bergeret, since the primary intent of this "Contemporary History" is to avoid structure, to escape from unity and regularity, to make a story without beginning and without end. It commences anywhere and it concludes anywhere. Formlessness is of the essence of the contract. It was the Latin in M. France who planned the short story in which Pontius Pilate is resuscitated, and it was the Celt who compiled the rambling and incoherent chronicle of M. Bergeret and of his fellow-citizens of the French republic in the ninth decade of the nineteenth century. Perhaps in the first decade of the twenty-first century this may be esteemed M. France's most important work. Certainly it is the most individual and the most original. After the novel had been burgeoning abundantly in every modern language, M. France was ingenious enough to find a new form for it—and his very original device was to do away with form altogether; to compose a story willfully devoid of structure. It was a novelty in fiction, a new idea in story-telling, carried out unflinchingly, with superb skill and with exact understanding of all its possibilities. In no other of his writings does he more amply display his extraordinary endowment and his extraordinary equipment. Every sporadic chapter is set before us with an incessant glitter of glancing wit, of biting humor, of cutting satire, and of piercing paradox.

Mr. Austin Dobson once praised Miss Austen for apparently not inventing the episodes of "Pride and Prejudice," but merely selecting them; and in this "Contemporary History" M. France has deserved the same praise, and in an even higher degree, since he seems not even to have selected his episodes, but only to have taken those nearest to his hand. He has actually given us the "slices of life" that Zola and Daudet sought to set before the reader; but they endeavored to combine these realistic transcripts into an artistic whole, whereas M. France merely juxtaposes them one after another, all of them vibrating with the same intense actuality. He contributed these dissolving views of French society to a daily newspaper, mirroring the shifting events at the very moment when they had the utmost of "contemporary human interest." He was not only up-to-date, he was up-to-the-last-minute. He carried over into fiction the strident note of the latest edition of the evening paper.

But, however journalistic the narrative may be, it has the full flavor of literature always. Up-to-date as it was then, it is not out-of-date now. It is a permanent photograph of the daily kaleidoscope of France in the dismal years of the Dreyfus disgrace. It will survive as an invaluable

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document, elucidating the temper of that period for all time. Evanescent as its topics may be, there is nothing ephemeral in their treatment. Indeed, the topics themselves serve chiefly for discussion from the divergent points of view of the several characters, all representative and significant, all vital and pertinent, all seized in the act and fixed once for all. It is in this unending discussion of events, of opinions, and of prejudices that M. France is most brilliantly himself and most acutely critical. If that fiction must be dismissed as inferior which deals rather with external happenings than with internal humanity, and if that form of the novel is superior which rejects the attraction of artful plot to focus interest solely on character, then has M. France attained to a summit not trodden by any predecessor, since his plotless volumes are densely populated by recognizable human beings.

In this helter-skelter story, if story that can be called which has none, in this undramatic drama with its hundred acts, M. France has caught the multiplex and heterogeneous aspects of life itself. He has achieved an artistic triumph by renouncing the unity of design which is a fundamental requirement of art. Inconsequence is here made an essential element of the most delicate art. Anything may happen at any time, or nothing may happen, as chance decides. Perhaps this is a feat which only his surpassing cleverness could accomplish. He has blazed a new trail in the thick forest of fiction; and it will be interesting to see what will happen when any man less gifted shall risk a stroll in the devious path M. France was the first to tread. This follower will need to be a painter of unexpected adroitness and of indefatigable insight if he shall hope to rival the gallery of superb portraits through which we wander in these four loose-leaf volumes.

In one respect, and in one respect only, will it be easy for the future pupil to excel his master—by avoiding that occasional insistence upon the animal side of life wherein M. France vies with Maupassant and errs more gratuitously. Maupassant had no prejudice against any theme, fair or foul, but he treated each in accord with its nature, with the result that there is never a hint of indelicacy in any story of his the theme of which is not itself indecorous. M. France seems never to have heard the proverb which declares that dirt is matter in the wrong place.

To say this is not to suggest here that M. France is immoral; it is only to assert that he is sometimes indecent. Morality may be a matter of opinion, varying with the peoples and with the centuries; and a philosophic critic like M. France may be justified in casting doubts upon all our principles as well as upon all our prejudices. His books are morally relaxing; they are not spoon-meat for babes. Rather are they for the mature who can weigh the external questions of incidental ethics each for himself. But the mature are likely to have the healthy palate which does not demand the provocation of a highly spiced sauce. Mr. Henry James once suggested that morally George Sand had no taste; and there are episodes in more than one of M. France's works, amusing in themselves, but grating on our teeth, and leaving us a little ashamed of the laughter they aroused. And here we see the Celt again getting the upper hand over the Norman, and even over the Latin; the Celt is willful where the Norman is logical and the Latin reserved.

Indecorum is one thing and immorality is the other, and the question whether or not a work of art is moral must often depend on our point of view. Some arts—architecture, for example, and music—stand completely outside ethics; the other arts deal with men and women—the drama and the novel in prose or in verse; and in these the artist cannot evade his moral responsibility. Conduct is three-fourths of life, whatever we may say, and the dramatist and the novelist cannot eschew ethics. They need not—indeed, they should not—put any moral into their work; but woe betide them if they leave it out. It is, and it must be, "part of the essential richness of inspiration," as Mr. James once declared. Life is a saturation of literature, and the artist cannot slip out of his obligation to tell the truth as he sees it, even if the ultimate morality depends upon the reader. "There is no quite good book without morality," said Stevenson, "but the world is wide and so are morals;" what is one man's meat is another man's poison, and M. France's

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writings may not be for all sorts and conditions of men; a few of them are only for those who are eupeptic and even stout of stomach.

His earlier books provoked us to healthy thinking over the discrepancy between our vaunted ideals and the ugly compromises we are prone to accept without repugnance. Some of his later books tend to benumb our will by showing that the gap between theory and practice yawns too wide and too deep ever to be bridged. In these later books he sets before us a world of corrupt refinement peopled by beings intelligent enough to be interested in moral ideas without ever allowing these ideas to control their own conduct. He seems to suggest that any rule of life is illusive, a shifting and fading shadow; for humanity at large he has an infinite pity, with never a suggestion of hope. And here the acid of his criticism is too powerful a dissolvent; it is an *aqua regia* which even the purest gold cannot resist. After all, there are some paradoxes which are not true. As we turn the pages of the "Island of Penguins," for example, we feel as though the fabled law had actually been promulgated which declared that "everything is abolished" and that "no one is charged with the execution of this decree." Perhaps for this reason M. France may seem to some the most representative of French authors in this opening decade of the twentieth century, as he is the most charming. He is always abundant in modern instances which sharpen the teeth of old saws; and he is affluent in ideas of his own, at once subtle and searching. The child of Renan and the grandchild of Voltaire, he will have progeny of his own in the years to come; and the critics of the next generation will have an attractive task when they undertake to trace his influence upon the French literature of the future.

THE MASTER BUILDER

"As he is, so are we in this world"

BY LYMAN ABBOTT

THIRD ARTICLE

THE STRUGGLE IN THE DESERT

AFTER his public dedication of himself to the life of a reformer Jesus disappeared as suddenly and as silently as he had appeared to receive baptism. No wonder that John, baffled by the month of silence, followed by a ministry which had in it no promise of immediate result, wondered whether this man was really the promised Deliverer of Israel. But we now know why Jesus disappeared; it was that, hiding himself from the haunts of men, he might, in the seclusion of the wild desert which borders on the Dead Sea, ponder the problem of his life-work. The experiences of men of genius can be interpreted to us only as through a glass, darkly, by the imperfect parallel which our own experiences afford. Only thus can be interpreted the mystical story of the temptation of Jesus; only thus can we convert this Oriental poetry into history. This is the method which the greatest poets have adopted in their endeavor to depict the experience of the temptation of Jesus. Milton describes the tempter as approaching Jesus under the guise of an aged peasant, at once attracting confidence by his venerable appearance and disarming suspicion by his simple attire. Lucas van Leyden represents the devil disguised as an old, bearded man, with a long robe trailing behind, his head covered with a cowl. These representations are much more truly interpretative than that of Tissot, which represents Jesus flying through the air carried by the devil undisguised—for a devil undisguised cannot tempt. It would require no great courage for us to do battle with the devil if he would only puff his sulphurous breath into our faces. We may be sure that the temptation came to

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Jesus as similar experiences have come to other sons of men, as narrated both in literature and in history.

Thus in the legends of the East is the story told of the temptation of Buddha on that night when all the powers of evil gathered about him, to assail him by violence and to entice him by wiles:

"Nor knoweth one,
Not even the wisest, how those fiends of hell
Battled that night to keep the truth from Buddh:
Sometimes with terrors of the tempest, blasts
Of demon armies clouding all the wind
With thunder, and with blinding lightning flung
In jagged javelins of purple wrath
From splitting skies; sometimes with wiles and words
Fair-sounding, 'mid hushed leaves and softened airs
From shapes of witching beauty; wanton songs,
Whispers of love; sometimes with royal allures
Of proffered rule; sometimes with mocking doubts,
Making truth vain."

Thus in the mythology of Greece is the story told of the temptation of Hercules, when Pleasure comes to him in wanton but bewitching form, and promises him, if he will follow her, the cup of pleasure and the song and dance of self-indulgence. Thus in the later history of the Church is the mystical story of St. Anthony with its sensual enticements and its diabolical torments. Thus, too, in the lives of John Wesley, Luther, Xavier, and Loyola are recorded temptations scarcely less mysterious than the temptation of Jesus of Nazareth. Nor is the evil spirit always successfully resisted. History tells us that Napoleon Bonaparte for two long months struggled over the question whether he should divorce Josephine and take another wife that he might build up a European dynasty, and that when he came out from his chamber after the night of struggle it was with a face so pallid that it was like no face he ever showed after the hottest battlefield of Europe.

Thus read, as not without a parallel in the experience of other rulers besides Napoleon, we may interpret the story of the threefold temptation of Jesus somewhat as follows:

After a long pondering of his life problems, so absorbed that he is alike unconscious of the passage of time and of his lack of food, he comes to the consciousness of his physical need. He was a-hungered. If he were the Son of God, why not command these stones that they may be made bread? This was his immediate need; why not provide for it? This was the most apparent need of humanity; why not set himself to work to supply it? Wave thy wand beneath nature, and let the stones give forth their gold, and the rocks their coal, and prairies their harvests; harness the mountain streams leaping down the mountain-side, and set them turning the busy wheels of industry; cover the broader rivers as they reach the coast with shipping which shall carry stores of wealth. The curse of misery is poverty, the cause of happiness is abundance. Cure thy own poverty, Master, with bread, and give to thy poverty-stricken brethren abundance; so shalt thou win thy way to fame and power, so shalt thou bring to the world the kingdom of God, bestowing upon it a material civilization. Something such as this seems to me to have been the first suggestion made to Jesus when pondering the question how should he make the kingdom of God come upon the earth.

And the answer is interpreted by his life-work, no less than by the response of his spirit at the moment. "Man shall not live by bread alone, but by every word that proceedeth out of the mouth of God." The secret of happiness is not material civilization, but the divine life. Blessed are, not the strong who seize the wealth, but the meek who inherit it as a free gift from the Father. Blessed are, not the war-makers who conquer the earth, but the peacemakers who bring to it the benediction of peace and good will. The secret of happiness is character, not possession. Christianity is not civilization; it does not come through civilization. Christianity comes first; civilization is its product. The great need of humanity is not larger wealth, but diviner character.

Then comes the second suggestion. In imagination the Master takes wings, stands on the loftiest pinnacle of the lofty Temple at Jerusalem, and looks down upon the priests chanting their service in the courts below and the great crowd thronging

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the city streets. Fling thyself down from this pinnacle; angel hands will bear thee up lest thy foot dash against a stone; so shalt thou win thy victory by one great wonder-moving achievement; so secure the plaudits of mankind, and through their admiration their loyalty.

If such was not the message of Satan then, it certainly has been the message of Satan since. Christian theology has made wonder, not love, the foundation of faith, and asked us to believe in Jesus Christ, not because of his winning character, but because of his marvelous miracles. The Christian Church has appealed to us to worship Christ, seeking to attract us by the wonderful beauty of its cathedrals, the splendor of its ritual, the magnificence of its art. The cross is no longer the symbol of a shameful death, but of a glorious and wonderful achievement. It stands crowning the dome of an ecclesiastical palace, or is worn, a jeweled ornament, upon the bosom of a richly robed lady. What mean all these insignia of ecclesiastical power? Except that the Church is seeking to win its way to power, not by appeal to love, but by appeal to admiration? What mean sermon after sermon, book after book, appeal after appeal from Protestant pulpit and from Protestant teacher, to fear and awe, by an imagined heaven and an imagined hell? Except that the Church has yielded to the temptation to make quick passage to a kingdom of God by stirring men to fear and admire God rather than to love him? But Christ will not win his way to the world's homage by admiration. He cares not for bowing heads and bended knees, but for loyal hearts touched with the spirit of his own deep love.

In the third temptation Jesus seems to himself to be standing on the top of a high mountain with all the kingdoms of the world spread out before him. He anticipates the time when the later vision of John will be fulfilled, and all these kingdoms of the world will become the kingdoms of our Lord and of his Christ. How shall he accomplish this world transformation? How shall he bring about that kingdom which is righteousness, or fair dealing; peace, or good will; joy, or universal welfare? How shall he make the æsthetic beauty and the intellectual philosophy of Greece tributary to righteousness? How shall he make the laws and the armies of Rome tributary to peace? How shall he make the sensuous self-indulgence of the Orient tributary to universal happiness? This is the problem of every reformer from the time of Jesus to the present day, and to every reformer comes the temptation that came to him.

Compromise a little; do not too quickly challenge the world to mortal combat; do not needlessly arouse its hostility; use the instruments of the world to conquer the world; the methods of the world to transform the world; fight fire with fire; when you are in Rome, do as the Romans do; pay a feudal homage to the devil that you may vanquish the devil. Something such was the devil's promise to Napoleon I: All the kingdoms of the world will I give thee if thou wilt serve me. The service was rendered, and the devil gave—St. Helena. Something such the devil's promise to Napoleon III; the service was rendered and the devil gave—Chiselhurst.

With what flash of indignation Jesus instantly and instinctively replies to this suggestion. "Get thee behind me, Satan: for it is written, Thou shalt worship the Lord thy God, and him only shalt thou serve." No worldliness shall be in my religion; no compromise with evil in my battle against it; it may slay me, but by truth I will conquer. Something such was the answer of Savonarola to Lorenzo the Magnificent; something such the response of the Bishop of Soissons to Louis XV. For many a man has followed Jesus into the desert to be tested, and has come out like the Master with vision clarified and purpose strengthened. Not until the closing year of Jesus' life did perplexity again cloud his path, and never did danger daunt his courage or difficulty shake his indomitable purpose.

To all men these three temptations come. The first in the enticements of pleasure, the second in the appeal of vanity, the third in the demand of ambition. The first comes to us in our youth, the second in our early manhood, the third in our mature life. The vices of the first are drunkenness and licentiousness; of the second, a weakened will and social

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display; of the third, the rapacity of political and commercial despotism. Each comes disguised: the first as innocent enjoyment, the second as good nature, the third as great achievement. Wise is he who discerns the reality beneath the disguise; accepts these proposed companions as servants, but not as masters; uses the world, as not abusing it; serves his fellowmen, yet is not their slave; and counts promotion of the general welfare the only achievement.

The world is to be redeemed from sorrow by Christianity, not by civilization; by changing the nature of man, not by mere improvements in his condition. The world is to be won to virtue by the service of love, not by feats of daring; by affection, not by admiration. And the world is to be won to God by uncompromising allegiance to him and to his law of truth, purity, and goodness. Whatever whispered suggestion hints to us that compromise with evil is the pathway to success is a hint from that old liar, the devil, to whom always the soul should give the same answer: "Get thee behind me, Satan: for it is written, Thou shalt worship the Lord thy God, and him *only* shalt thou serve."

THE GIRL GRADUATE

BY MRS. NEWELL DWIGHT HILLIS

ONE of the problems which have been agitating certain portions of society is the question of the "sweet girl graduate." It is not so much what we shall do with her and how train her, as how we shall adapt ourselves to her plans so that her ambitions and her mother's ideals may have some relation to each other. The "girl of the period" of 1911 is so different a creature from the girls of a generation ago that the training and ideals of that time fit her just about as well as the wedding gown of her petite mother fits the well-developed, athletic daughter of to-day.

Since the change in size and physique indicates progress in material conditions, it is suggestive of the thought that possibly the change in mental attitude may have something in it of increased strength and broadness which mothers will do well to ponder. We have reached the automobile age. Progress is no longer achieved by hitching the wagon to a force which can jog along and pull some weight in its train, but by directing a power self-generated, and amply sufficient to carry its own load and drag the wagon too, if necessary.

What success has been achieved under the changed conditions is not now the subject of discussion. What can be done by way of preparation for the future by the girl who knows only indefinitely what that future may be, is a question which faces many girls and many mothers.

With all due reverence to our mothers and their accomplishments, there is, after all, another side to the matter. They did well in their day, undoubtedly, adapting their ways to their conditions, and probably appearing as radical and unpractical to their mothers as do the girls of to-day to theirs. But we are in a new day, with new conditions, new resources, and new demands. It is only reasonable to suppose that other methods may be more suited to our times.

The home training of the daughter is one of the present-day problems. She has passed through a period of a dozen or more years of study and training which have so monopolized time and strength that she has learned little about household matters—cooking, sewing, or the administration of the house. But at the same time her mind has been trained; she has been taught to observe, to reason, and to generalize. She has been taught to think more or less broadly; she has been in constant contact with an outside world, even though a limited one; she has been free from responsibility, except as to her own mental development; and she has reached a point, both physically

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and mentally, where she feels her own power. She is like an engine, fitted and polished, with the steam on, ready to begin its journey, and the mother's task is now to learn how to handle the engine so as to direct its forces without waste and without wreckage.

After graduation comes the time to which the mother has long looked forward, when she shall have the daugher in the home, when she shall have her assistance and her companionship, and when the daughter may acquire the household knowledge which it is generally conceded every woman should possess. The old ideals prevail—in theory. The old standard is upheld and blazoned abroad by women who most ardently proclaim it, but it is frequently as a shield to cover their own delinquencies rather than as a banner which they are actually following.

Unquestionably our girls should learn to keep house; but how? Generally they are set at the pettiest details, done because of the supposed "ought to," not because their services are needed. They know perfectly that the house has run smoothly all these years with little of their aid. They feel that their work is not important, and they usually hate it.

On the other hand, the mother has had it drilled into her from childhood that to begin at the beginning is the proper, the only, way. She is apt to overlook the fact that the years of education in school have robbed her of her chance to train a child in household ways. She has now to do with a trained woman. She cannot portion out the petty details to be learned by heart, "line upon line, precept upon precept." She must present a system. Modern teachers have discovered that the best way to teach reading, even with children, is not by enforcing a knowledge of the separate letters of the alphabet, but by teaching the word which represents the idea as a whole. Later its component parts are analyzed and acquired, and the acquirement is so easy that the pupil is hardly conscious of the effort to learn. So it is with this art. A scheme which sets before the learner the subject as a whole, with the elements in their proper relation, will appeal to a trained mind as details unduly magnified never can.

Possibly a difficulty has been a misapprehension of what housekeeping really is. The first essential is usually set down as a knowledge of cooking; but is it? This must come, and will come in due time. But a trained mind looks at things in a general way. The entire subject, with its parts in their proper relation, should be considered. The real foundation of intelligent home-making is a knowledge of its economics; cooking is but one of the branches.

Now the word "economics" frightens the average woman. It at once suggests "economy," which subject either a guilty conscience or much "harping upon one string" has made a bugbear. But economy is "another story." It, like cooking, is but a branch of the art of housekeeping.

While not covering the subject, the responsibility for the dining-room combines the more essential parts and furnishes an excellent opportunity for a broad study of home economics. It should be the full responsibility, since we are dealing with trained minds. The table is both a necessity and an enjoyment. With certain rules as to hygienic laws in the selection of food, with certain ambitions as to artistic setting and social obligations, it becomes a fascinating study. Very soon the need of a knowledge of cooking and the selection of proper ingredients and their proper treatment becomes apparent and worth acquiring. A knowledge of the cost of living, which is probably the weakest point in the training of women, is demanded immediately. Even yet the women who know exactly what they can spend, what they have a right to spend, are almost as rare as the women who know what they do spend. This ignorance is a remnant of the age of barbarism when women were considered as property, or, if it seems more flattering, when ladies were considered too *spirituelle*, too delicate, to have contact with filthy lucre, but the effect is the same—to make women childish and inconsequent as to the use of money, except as their natural common sense controlled them.

In the planning and providing of a proper menu the girl at once strikes the heart of the economic problem. She must provide food which shall be satisfying, which shall be attractive, which shall possess the right ingredients for the sup-

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port of body and brain, and this for people of different ages and requirements. She must take into consideration the occasional, often sudden, demands of hospitality, and she must do all this within a fixed expenditure. It is a game with many complexities, but it is a game in which it is perfectly possible to score well, and "the game is worth the candle." Intelligently undertaken and studied, it is as fascinating as a game of chess or bridge whist, and demands quite as high a type of brain.

The possibilities have hardly any limit. It adds zest to its pursuit to know that the economic problem is at present almost the most important before the Nation. In every line of activity the high cost of living is calling forth serious study of conditions. The National Association of Manufacturers have set experts at work to find the sources of wastefulness and their remedies. The newly elected Governors of two States have emphasized in their inaugural addresses the need of economy throughout the country in public and private expenditure. Our leading reviews are giving the subject much attention. Whatever study girls may give the domestic problem is of the same nature as is given by the agents of the great corporations or the Government officials. It is simply a question of degree.

Certain minor parts of the household art are unjustly falling into desuetude among the well-to-do. Except in its so-considered artistic use (embroidery and the like), skill in needlework is rare among our educated girls. The homely arts of darning and mending and the careful use and preservation of materials, the skillful rehabilitation of garments, are out of fashion, and it is a distinct loss. When ready-made apparel became easy to acquire, the overworked mother felt her relief so keenly that she forgot the advantages which the quiet hours of sewing bring with them. The constant flitting from place to place, the dipping into this study and that diversion, and an hour of philanthropy here and social indulgence there, are destructive to consecutive thought, to development of brain, to steadiness of nerve. Because our mothers oversewed is no reason why the needle should be utterly despised by us to-day. There can be reason and moderation in all things. Some use of the needle is sedative to nerves and stimulating to constructive thought; and knowledge and skill in its handling prevent much of the extravagance and waste which are so prevalent among the women of the leisure class. The value of time thus spent goes far beyond the price paid to a substitute. It works for all the home-making realities: *forethought*, *economy*, and *thrift*; but chiefly the presence of the woman in her home, unhurried and in harmony with her surroundings, which goes far to make the atmosphere of a home. These count for much more than the saving of time usually valued by its owner at an inordinate rate.

The development of a sense of order should be a study included in the curriculum of this life-school. There is a woeful misunderstanding of what niceness in home-keeping consists in. To have things many and expensive, things which are really but attempts to copy the display of art treasures on the part of wealthy neighbors, has come to be the average woman's idea of an attractive home. It is really an unconscious exhibition of the condition which the rapid rise in wealth has brought about. It is another manifestation of the "nouveau-riche-ness" which we all despise but most of us imbibe.

Real delicacy consists in true fitness of things; furniture selected because of its need and proper surroundings; books bought because of an interest in their subjects or because of what they will do for culture or refreshment; pictures which have a meaning and give enjoyment and which are not bought simply to furnish the rooms. With the proper harmony of things the real daintiness and delicacy of the home-keeper is shown in their care and use. Here is where a girl can indulge in day-dreams, where brain and heart are given opportunity to build castles which are both wholesome and ennobling if the right attitude of mind is assumed. And this is the keynote. Housekeeping and home-making are drudgery or enjoyment according to the view-point. If a woman puts into her work the same imagination, the same zest and eagerness, which the successful man puts into his business or his profession, she, too, is on the road to

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success. The greatest requisite is enthusiasm, and no woman can have this unless she elevates home-making to the place where it belong, the highest of all arts.

But the daughter's training should not be confined to the home. That is but a part of her world. Let it be granted that it is the more important part. She still owes something to society outside of the home. She receives benefits from society which she is bound to make some effort to repay, and this should be done not by chance, haphazard. She should be shown her obligations to church and society and State, but not too rapidly. She is still in a formative period, and heavy burdens should not be laid upon her; but as opportunity offers for light or occasional service, at first, and as strength, interest, and ability develop and she has acquired experience, she should select a definite line of outside work to which she may devote such part of her time as she can afford to give as the fulfillment of her obligation, and she should do this with the idea that this shall be a permanent choice, a work to which she will give careful study and thought, acquiring experience and training in her particular line which shall fit her for future power and influence.

The recent organization of the Junior League, which has for its object the enlistment of every girl when she leaves school in some form of work for the benefit of others, is a most hopeful sign. It indicates the fact that women are beginning to recognize the insufficiency of the so-called "charity" work which is taken up as a fad and continued or laid down according to convenience or inclination. Such work is too insignificant and too liable to error to be of real importance or of permanent value. But there is work which belongs properly to women of leisure, and which they are, in justice, bound to do for the welfare of their own cities and for their country's good. Even were men willing to carry the burden of it all, they have neither the leisure, the opportunity, nor the fitness for the greater part of such work. It belongs peculiarly to women, and they should be trained to do it wisely and intelligently.

This does not mean that all the gayety and enjoyment will be taken away from the daughter. Of course work should not monopolize the whole time and thought. It should be looked upon, rather, as a course of the life education, balanced against social hours and domestic interests, just as a well-rounded college course provides science, literature, and the arts to develop the different activities of the mind. A woman with an all-around training of this sort is more capable as a house-worker, more interesting in her social life, and more valuable as a citizen because she knows life as it is, not as pictured in novels or incompletely represented in society.

There is another phase which is part of the development of true womanhood, the training of the religious nature. Youth is a time especially given to the search for happiness. True happiness cannot be found when the finest notes are left unstruck. The rarest nature will miss its flower and fruitage if its nourishment be from the earth alone. Good deeds and good works bring rich reward, but the doer and the worker are, after all, of higher value. The girl brought up in a church home has a good start, but the rule holds here as elsewhere. She can make her own only that which she assimilates and develops by use and practice. If she receives, she must give. If she is what she is because of what she has had, she owes a debt to be honorably met and discharged.

"The days of youth are the happy days" is a popularly accepted saying which presents the roseate tinge which memory gives the long ago rather than states a real condition. To most young people the period immediately following graduation is a time of great unrest and frequent depression. The change from a life of regular duties with definite aims to a position of irresponsibility, irregularity, and uncertainty, after the first few weeks have given the needed rest and the novelty of unaccustomed freedom has worn away, is not a pleasant one. To the young man who steps into a business position, however near the bottom of the ladder, or who hangs out the shingle which announces his entrance into the serious business of life, it may be another matter; but to the girl who hopes some day to be a home-maker, but who does not know where or in what conditions that home may be, or even whether she

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will ever be the head of a house or not, it is a time of restlessness. Her life will be happier, more satisfying, if it have a definite plan, one which will develop her symmetrically along all the lines on which the life of the average woman of her class should move. She will become capable, broad-minded, sane, and healthful, such a woman as the world is richer for possessing, a woman who can stand on her own feet and do her share in the world's upbuilding.

THE NEW BOOKS

Mr. Joseph C. Lincoln has made his "Two Woman Haters" amusing, and has put them in odd and unexpected situations. His tale has rather the character of an overgrown short story than of a novel. It is not a work of serious pretensions, but is jolly and has the seashore tang and flavor. (D. Appleton & Co., New York. $1.25.)

A great many people will thoroughly enjoy reading in printed form Mr. Augustus Thomas's successful and excellent play "As a Man Thinks." We have already commented on the play itself, which is unusual both as a delicately handled study of the social relations of the Jewish people in America and as a remarkable piece of dramatic construction. (Duffield & Co., New York. $1.25.)

A Christmas story in July is a novelty. Whether Mr. William Caine's "The Revolt at Raskelly's" is a reminiscence of the last holiday publishing season or a forerunner of the next we know not and care not; what is worth knowing is that it is brimfull of the true Christmas flavor. "Raskelly's" is an English hotel resort in which a small set of exclusives ignore and snub the guests of less pretensions. Jealousy, meanness, and social discomfort abound. But before Christmas a certain Mr. Yule arrives, refuses to see that social distinctions exist, is jolly with everybody, and the revolt against snobbery and selfishness goes merrily on. The book is unpretentious, lively, and amusing. (G. P. Putnam's Sons, New York. $1.50.)

The publishers of "The Corner of Harley Street" are really justified in comparing these critical papers with Dr. Holmes's "The Autocrat of the Breakfast Table," for they have, not exactly the manner of the Autocrat, but the method. This "familiar correspondence of Peter Harding, M.D.," consists of letters to his son, his daughter, his aunt, other members of his family, and familiar friends. The letters are the easy talk of a middle-aged London doctor, and in subject they touch all sorts of things, from fishing to religion. They are charmingly discursive, often witty, and always full of a genial sympathy with humanity and the significant facts of life. The book is most emphatically readable, and it is also comfortably cheerful and gently humorous. A better volume for summer reading could hardly be named; for this purpose it is vastly superior to most of the fiction which it is the custom to denominate "summer reading." (Houghton Mifflin Company, Boston. $1.25.)

The volume for 1910 of "The New International Year-book" is an invaluable reference work. It is the fourth volume in the new series which began with the Year-book for 1907. Like the other volumes, it is designed as an encyclopædia of the year, and a particular distinction of the publication is that it consists of new articles, not of articles revised from year to year. For convenience of reference the alphabetical arrangement has been followed, and the free use of cross-references renders an index unnecessary. The present volume is, of course, noteworthy because of certain events and movements of 1910, among them being the electoral campaign resulting in the Democratic victory, the New Nationalism movement, the termination of the Ballinger-Pinchot affair, the course of the Insurgent agitation among the Republicans, the death of King Edward VII, the great railway strike in France, the Portuguese revolution, and the Russo-Japanese Agreement. We commend "The New International Year-book" as worthy to stand after the "Statesman's Yearbook" on any shelf of books of reference. (Dodd, Mead & Co., New York. $5.)

The play hours of men of aggressive character often furnish in their relation material for quiet men's enjoyment. This is notably the case with Mr. Jack London's "The Cruise of the Snark," which has just been published in a handsomely bound and profusely illustrated volume. In this book Mr. London describes his voyage, made in company with "Charmian" (Mrs. London) and a crew of one. The Snark was a little boat forty-three feet long, with an auxiliary gas-engine. Mr. London tells us that the Snark was born unfortunate. "She was libeled in San Francisco, had her checks protested as fraudulent in Hawaii, and was fined for breach of quarantine in the Solomons. To save themselves, the newspapers could not tell the truth about her." The voyage, as originally planned, was extensive indeed, taking in not only the South Sea

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Islands, Samoa, Australasia, the Philippines, China, and India, but also the Mediterranean. These plans were only in part carried out, as the voyage was interrupted by circumstances which could not be foreseen. We have found the narrative animated, and the record of observation is decidedly interesting and unusual. We will not undertake to describe the many adventures and misadventures encountered. Mr. London has a decided faculty for seeing things which the ordinary traveler, even in distant and little-visited places, passes over as of no consequence, but which are really significant. He has also the faculty of enlivening his pages with dialogue and sharp comment. Many readers will find the book as good fun as a story. It deserves an honorable place in the literature of travel and adventure. (The Macmillan Company, New York. $2.)

Dr. Thomas Addis Emmet, of New York, now in his eighty-third year, comes of a family represented for over two centuries in the ranks of medical men. He has been a pioneer in gynæcology as the associate and successor of the late Dr. J. Marion Sims, and his contributions to medical science have been translated into foreign tongues. His reminiscences of a long and active career fill a large octavo volume with "Incidents of My Life," professional, literary, social, together with a record of his services to the cause of Ireland, to which his grand-uncle, Robert Emmet, fell a martyr in 1803. Many of these incidents are of public interest. They concern noted persons (mostly deceased), country and city life in his younger days, the crude medical practice of that time, and various evil conditions which, as a background to the present, evince the progress of welfare. There is also much gossipy matter, mainly of interest to the writer and his relatives, in the course of which, however, many entertaining anecdotes occur, and stories of remarkable cases in his professional practice. His chapters on Irish affairs give point to the present contention of British Liberals that Anglo-American concord will be promoted by justice to Irish claims. When Dr. Emmet touches historical facts, his memory is often inaccurate. The town records of Hartford, Connecticut, in 1642 confute his statement that "for white children there were *no* free schools, in the present acceptation of the term, in New England or elsewhere, until about the close of the eighteenth century." The Delaware and Hudson Railway from the coal mines to the canal, built in 1828, was the first in this country, not "the railroad from Washington to Baltimore." That "the whole action" of the Federal authorities resisted by the draft riot in 1863 "was against the Irish people" is certainly an extravagant misstatement. That famous Irish regiment, the Sixty-ninth New York, was conspicuously efficient in quelling the rioters. Dr. Emmet relates his conversion to the Roman Catholic Church, and argues that "Christianity could not exist" unless the Holy Father "be accepted as infallible" in matters of faith. A native Virginian, devoted to the lost cause, he argues that our existing National Government rests on "power gained by usurpation in every branch of the Executive," and fears that we are "near to a Dictatorship." Old age must have its fling as well as the youngster. But his generous spirit and beneficent life will obtain from the readers of his autobiography the personal esteem which he has well earned. (G. P. Putnam's Sons, New York. $6.)

The student of architecture and the student of history should delight in the Rev. Dr. George Herbert West's "Gothic Architecture in England and France." We cannot do better than to quote a phrase or two from this book as showing the keen distinctions drawn by the author. In contrasting French and English cathedrals he says:

> In the exterior of the former, which is generally the obvious result of one great effort, the walls are standing in slices at right angles to the building which they support but do not enclose, towering high above it, and seeming to push and thrust with all their power to keep up its enormous height. It is very wonderful and very beautiful, but leaves a sense of constant effort to overcome difficulties, after all, only partially vanquished. What a difference is there in the peace of the long, low English cathedral, with its insignificant buttresses and unambitious lines, with no traceried canopies or wealth of sculpture, and, except for the upward pointing of its central spire, seeming content to remain on earth, and telling in its unequal parts and varied styles, not of a mighty impulse which faltered all too soon, of a lofty enthusiasm which died down to mere mechanical dexterity, but of successive generations of commonplace yet earnest men, each bringing its little stone and saying:
>
> "Add this to the rest.
> Take it and try its worth; here dies another day."
>
> And in the interior also the story is the same. In the English church we trace the stolid acceptance of existing facts, which preserves all that has gone before, however imperfect, and, adding here and changing there, makes up a building, humble-minded, as it were, with a wooden roof perhaps, content to suffice for the needs of the present, telling in every corner of the makeshifts of the past, with no sign of anxious, unrealized ambition for the future, incapable of perfection, because begun and ended incessantly, and always without continuous design, yet breathing out an indescribable charm of sympathy almost human in its loving reverence for the results of all past human effort. But in the other the soaring lines which guide the eye upward ever to the vault of stone poised miraculously on its walls of painted glass seem to tell of master minds of long ago, of those
>
> "Few whom God whispers in the ear,
> For whom earth had attained to heaven, there was no more far nor near."

The above indicates the author's point of view. The cathedrals of his own country do, indeed, express the consciousness of national historical continuity. But French Gothic expresses an inveterately artistic nature which has made the French throughout history the exponents of the highest art expression. In other words, English art expresses a nation's history; French art expresses a nation's soul. (The Macmillan Company, New York. $2.25.)

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LETTERS TO THE OUTLOOK

OVER-GENEROUS CONCESSIONS

[We welcome the following letter from Brigadier-General H. M. Chittenden, of the United States Army. We plead guilty of making at least very generous concessions to Mr. Homer Lea, in accordance with our general policy of giving to our opponent the best showing we can.—THE EDITORS.]

I would like to ask your attention to what seem to me over-generous concessions to the arguments of Mr. Homer Lea's book "The Valor of Ignorance" in the very effective reply to those arguments published in your issue of June 3, under the caption "The Ignorance of Valor." I will note two points. You say: "At the outset let us say that there is some truth in his [Mr. Lea's] contention. . . . It is true that the ocean is no longer a barrier between the United States and armed forces to the west of us and other armed forces to the east of us; that the Atlantic is no safeguard against England or Germany, the Pacific no safeguard against Japan. . . . It is true that Japan protested against our acquisition of the Hawaiian Islands, and has never withdrawn her protest."

As to the first of these matters, Mr. Lea puts it a little more tersely, as follows: "The great rampart of the ocean has utterly vanished." "*Utterly* vanished," mind you. Now, considered as a technical military problem, it is doubtful if our isolation is not to-day a greater bulwark of defense than ever before. It is true that troops can be transported across the ocean in far greater numbers and in far less time than in the days of sailing vessels. But other considerations fully offset these advantages. *Our* ships can also move faster to meet and forestall any hostile movement. The cable and wireless give us instant knowledge of an enemy's departure from his own ports. Our railways give us quick facilities for concentrating at a point of attack. Consider the advantage to an enemy in the early days when he could cross the ocean without our knowing anything of his movement, could strike anywhere from Maine to Georgia while our troops could be concentrated only by the slow process of marching. And then consider the enormous handicap in modern times of coal demands, repairs, etc., which make it impossible for a fleet to remain long from a base of supply. These and other considerations which will readily occur to any one who examines the question carefully show that the ocean remains a bulwark of defense the value of which has been increased, if anything, by modern inventive progress.

As to the second of the above matters, a careful perusal of the correspondence in the case, as reported in Chapter IV, on "Sovereignty: Its Acquisition and Loss" (pp. 504–509), Vol. I, of Moore's "Digest of International Law," shows that Japan apparently *did* withdraw her protest, or at least reduced it to an attenuated form amounting practically to withdrawal—a mere insistence upon an understanding as to the protection of Japanese rights and subjects in the islands in the event that annexation should actually take place. That this is the view of the compiler of the "Digest" is evidenced by the fact that he has indexed this subject under the heading "Protest of Japan and Its Withdrawal."

So on throughout Mr. Lea's book, every essential argument is a case of special pleading—an effort to adjust facts to a theory. The wide extent to which this theory meets acceptance is the most significant fact connected with the book. It voices one of the strongest appeals of human nature, the appeal of the *ancien régime*—the inertia of thought, the habit of looking backward instead of forward, the unconscious resentment against change, the doctrine that because a thing has always been it must therefore always be. This appeal is strong in every phase of intellectual progress, but particularly so in this question of war and peace, because of the mighty part which war has played in the past and its deep hold upon the imaginations of men. This human frailty Mr. Lea has "worked for all it is worth," and his lurid rhetoric, as Norman Angell calls it, has been a powerful aid in his desperately earnest jeremiad. But this does not alter the fact that his contention is almost as much an anachronism in our twentieth-century civilization as would be an attempt to revert to the Ptolemaic system in astronomical science.

H. M. CHITTENDEN.

Seattle, Washington.

THE PUBLIC SCHOOLS IN NEW YORK: VIEW OF MR. SETH LOW

[The following letter from Mr. Low is in reply to one from the editor-in-chief of The Outlook. An editorial on this subject will be found on another page.—THE EDITORS.]

Your letter of June 20 has just reached me. I do not recall ever having written anything upon the subject concerning which you write. I am entirely ready to say, however, that I share your own views, that the Board of Education for the city of New York might well be a small Board. Like yourself, however, I do not believe in a paid Board. I think the city of New York can get, in the future as in the past, a high grade of volunteer service for the proper functions of a City Board of Education, precisely as Columbia University and all the other universities of the land obtain such service. Unless I am mistaken, even the State universities are administered by unpaid boards.

There are, to my mind, two advantages in

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an unpaid Board, both of which are forfeited by attaching a salary to the position.

The first advantage is that an unpaid Board tends to keep the community more in touch with the schools than a paid Board would do. If the members of a Board of Education are paid, the community almost insensibly is likely to drop into the attitude of feeling that it is the business of the officials who are paid to run the schools, whereas it is of vital consequence to the schools that the community should continue to feel the warm personal interest in their welfare that is ministered to by a Board whose members serve without pay.

The second advantage of the unpaid Board is that such a Board is more likely than a paid Board to be content to discharge the proper functions of a Board of Education. It is contrary to the best experience, in my judgment, to expect the Board of Education to take the educational initiative. The school system of the city of New York has been placed in the very front rank of all the school systems of the country under the system of leaving the educational initiative to the professional men. A Board of Education made up of paid members is much more likely than an unpaid Board to feel that it ought to have the initiative all along the line. The great advances made at Columbia University in recent years are due very largely to the fact that in all educational questions the teaching staff enjoys the initiative. The Board of Trustees reserves the right to approve or disapprove, as it ought to do. But it gives immense inspiration to the professional men engaged in the work of education to know that if the University is to make progress the initiative must be theirs. I cannot believe that our great public school system can thrive if it is deprived of the inspiration that comes from this source.

If my experience, both as an executive and as the head of a university, is of any value in this matter, I am confident that the best interests of the city require a small Board of Education that is unpaid, and that the initiative as to all educational questions should remain where it is now, with the Board of Superintendents. SETH LOW.

Bedford Hills, New York.

SCHEDULE K AGAIN

I was very much interested in your editorial on Schedule K, but the figures therein quoted hardly seem to agree with my own experience. I am a college professor who has to economize, and I have frequently obtained my suits of clothes, when I could not get them at the marked-down sales, on the following plan: A friend of mine is in the woolen business and will sell me five yards of cloth (which is enough for a suit and extra pair of trousers) for from five to eight dollars, according to weight, etc. This is all-wool American goods, and the suits made from it I have worn two seasons, and found perfectly good for one or two more for knocking about. I get a tailor to make these up in the dull summer season for about twenty dollars, so that my suit with extra trousers costs about twenty-seven dollars. This would correspond pretty closely to the "twenty-dollar" suit referred to. *If* the tariff makes "five dollars" difference, it can only be because the tailor in making up in Europe pays less wages. It can hardly be the direct effect of the tariff on the woolen goods, but rather the general effect of the tariff (if such there be) on the price of labor. I am wondering, therefore, if the reduction in tariff on woolen goods, which I have no doubt is near at hand, will be anything like as much as is expected, or whether it will not be as it was in the case of boots and shoes. The tariff reduction there made absolutely no perceptible difference to us retail purchasers.

I can fully appreciate your position, because not only do the editors of The Outlook presumably belong (like myself) to the class with fixed salaries, to whom a reduction in the cost of living means a distinct increase in the ease of living, but you are also in the great importing gateway of the country, and it is not at all surprising that New York should be in favor of a low tariff. In fact, I find myself in a curiously mixed state of mind with regard to Schedule K. Many of my friends feel that the high tariff is a great moral wrong, and the mother of all other kinds of wrong. It may be that they are right, but it seems to me that they lose sight of two advantages at least of a protective tariff for the "Progressive," or, as many conservatives would call it, the "Socialistic," point of view. The protective tariff and the platforms supporting the same have taught the mass of the American people to believe, first, that the General Government has a right to interfere with private business for the general welfare. This is, of course, involved in protective legislation. Secondly, that the General Government has an interest and a duty in maintaining a chance for a living wage under proper conditions for every one who is willing to work. Now it seems to me that, as against the *laissez-faire* theory, these two ideas thoroughly inculcated in the voters have a distinct moral bearing. It seems to me also interesting to note that in such thoroughly democratic nations as Canada and Australia and even such a Socialistic country as France we seem to find no weakening of the protective theory. This is not, however, saying that the way protective tariffs have been built up in the past has been an ideal, or even a moral, one. The distribution of protective favors, like the distribution of the Government lands and other resources, has been in the past too often on a plan which the pessimist would call "each for himself, and the devil take the hindmost," but which the optimist would, however, call (and fairly, too) "plenty for all, help yourself." I prefer to believe, and, in fact, I know, from Western residence, that the optimistic feeling with

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regard to the situation has been in times past really very widespread. In the days when they used to talk of inexhaustible supplies of pine in the Saginaw Valley it was no wonder that such a feeling should prevail, and I imagine that in times past the feeling of many Republicans has been to give anybody (Southern industries included) about all that was asked for in the way of protective duties.

It seems, however, that about once in a generation we have to have a debate on these matters for the education of the people of the United States, and all I would ask is that before the tariff on wool is reduced we should carefully note what the prices are, and see if we actually get the benefits of reduced prices which are habitually held before us.

There is one other point which might fairly be made, and that is that, if the effect of the protective tariff should be seriously to injure or diminish the earning capacity of the five million people, the injury would by no means end with them. The less they earn, the less they have to spend, and there is no question but that, if five million people were out of work (an extreme case, which will, of course, not happen) there would be hard times for practically the whole community.

ALFRED C. LANE.

Tufts College, Boston, Massachusetts.

A SUGGESTION: MAKE WAR UNPROFITABLE

It appears improbable that any of the great Powers will accept arbitration in its entirety in lieu of armament. Most nations have some interest or principle that they will not allow to be questioned. The United States has the Monroe Doctrine; Canada, Australia, New Zealand, and South Africa will not entertain any proposition that interferes with their right to restrict immigration. Other countries are similarly situated, and, while sincerely favorable to peace, feel that, so long as a question remains that cannot be arbitrated, an emergency may arise when armament will be necessary. But all nations appreciate the waste and horror of war, and will no doubt entertain any reasonable proposal that will make war less likely, while not interfering with their right to maintain warlike preparations.

Nations are like individuals. All are more or less ambitious, some covetous and unscrupulous, and so long as war remains profitable it will be used as a means to get by force what cannot be acquired by right. Remove this incentive, make war unprofitable by international agreement, limiting the indemnity to money only, and the amount to considerably less than the actual sum incurred by the victorious nation in prosecuting the war, and the greatest barrier in the way of international peace will have been removed.

What I wish to suggest is an agreement between nations that will make war for selfish purposes impossible, by limiting the indemnity, and compelling peace to be concluded upon the following terms:

Section 1. The defeated nation shall retain and possess all territory owned and recognized as belonging to the said nation previous to the war.

Section 2. The victorious nation shall not exact any price, privilege, or indemnity of any kind, save and except an indemnity in money.

Section 3. The said money indemnity shall not exceed sixty per cent of the actual cost in money incurred by the victorious nation in prosecuting the war, from the time war was declared until the cessation of hostility.

Section 4. Should the nations at war be unable to agree between themselves as to the amount of indemnity to be paid, then any nation being a party to the war will have power to refer the question in dispute to the Hague International Court for adjustment, and the decision rendered by said Court shall be final and binding on all concerned.

All civilized nations are favorable to peace, but the history of the world contains so many instances of international piracy and broken pledges that nations naturally distrust each other and regard any proposal to reduce their armament as a menace to their safety.

The above agreement, while not banishing war, would be a great advance in that direction. The increased security would make nations less jealous concerning their defensive forces, and more likely to agree to the limitation of armament and the extension of arbitration to many questions at present considered beyond its scope.

JOHN STINSON.

Vancouver, British Columbia.

THE JACOB RIIS NEIGHBORHOOD SETTLEMENT

The warm weather is at our door in Henry Street, and with it has come this year a threatened scarcity of water that will add to the burdens of life in the tenements and the hot, unwashed streets. We need the help of our friends to send as many as possible to our house on Twin Island. Three dollars will keep a mother and her baby there a week in health and comfort. At home we must keep our roof garden open for those who cannot go. What they would do without it we do not know, and neither do they. We ask the readers of The Outlook to stand by us through the summer, as they have done through a score that have gone before, and help us as they can. Please make out checks to Lillian C. House, Treasurer, and send them to 48 Henry Street, New York.

JACOB A. RIIS.

THE GENEALOGY OF JESUS

A correspondent calls our attention to an error in the opening paragraph of "The Master Builder"—the statement that "in neither of the genealogies of Jesus do we find the name of any one of the great prophets of Israel, or of any one of the great reforming kings." The first part of this sentence is correct; the latter part is not, since we do find in Matthew i. 9, 10, the name of Hezekiah, and in verses 10, 11, the name of Josiah.—THE EDITORS.

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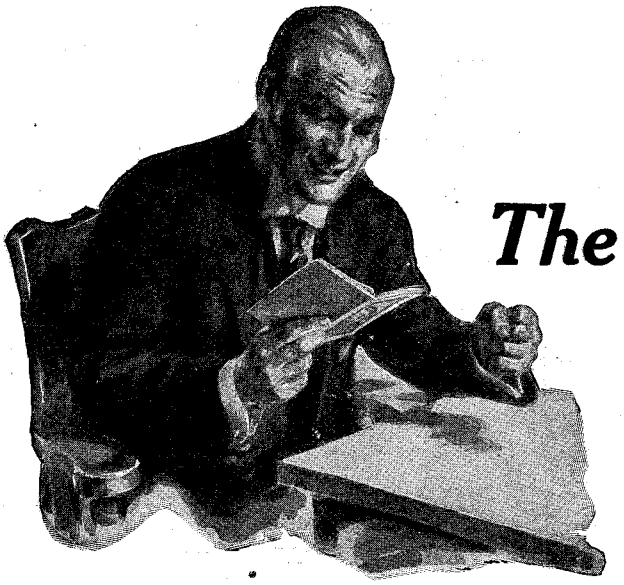

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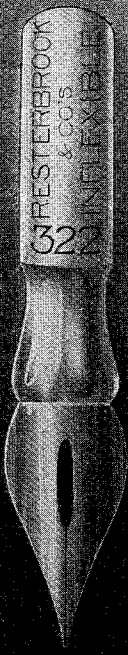

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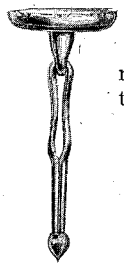

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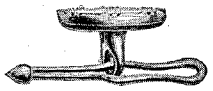

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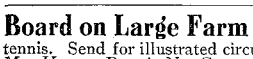

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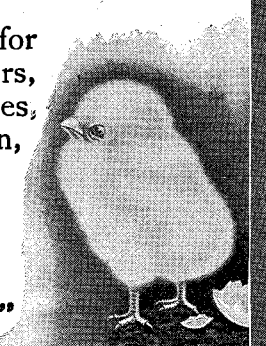

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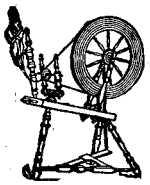

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